# PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTAL WELL-BEING WITH SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN

By

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# I. ABSTRACT

This study attempts to measure people's subjective evaluation of life in general. Respondents in the sample are Chinese parents living with school-age children in Hong Kong. They are asked to evaluate their life in general and 22 specific domains of life. The former includes two measures: (1) satisfaction with life in general, and (2) feeling of happiness about overall life. They may be called the global measures of sense of well-being. The latter includes twenty-two domains of life, 17 of them are rated on a five-point scale ranging from "very dissatisfied" to "very satisfied", while the remaining 5 domains are rated on a good-bad continuum with four using five-point scale and one using three-point scale.

Our respondents are predominantly lower class people, but in average their evaluations of global well-being and domains of life bend to the positive side. Multiple regression analysis has been applied to the whole sample, as well as to subgroups of working men and working women. Referring to the whole sample, we hypothesize that global life satisfaction is significantly predicted by satisfaction with the private and immediate life domains, and other life domains that are public or distant to oneself are not significant predictors. With regard to gender difference, domains that are material- or self-oriented in nature are hypothesized to be stronger predictors for men; domains that are family or relational-oriented in nature are hypothesized to be stronger predictors for women. Similar hypotheses also apply to the prediction of global happiness. However, all of these hypotheses have been rejected. Regarding the difference in predicting global satisfaction and happiness, it is hypothesized that the percentage of

total variation in global happiness explained by significant domains is less than that of global satisfaction. Our data have confirmed this hypothesis.

Consistent results show that four domains of life are "core" predictors of global satisfaction and happiness. These "core" domains include satisfaction with family life, current achievement, entertainment, and interaction with other people. Among these four domains, family life constantly influences the global measures to the greatest extent.

We have also proposed two different structural models attempting to explain how the parents come to their overall assessment of well-being. One of them is the affect-cognition model. In this model, sense of well-being is thought to be influenced by positive affect, negative affect, and cognition. Unfortunately, LISREL analysis shows that our data fail to confirm such model. Another structural model is the parent-youth relation model. This model suggests that parental sense of well-being is determined by three latent constructs involving parent-youth relationship, authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles. And the two parenting styles are also thought to influence the parent-youth relationship. The LISREL results, however, indicate that our data do not fit the model. A modified parent-youth relation model, which is not our initial consideration, seems to be an acceptable model for our data. In this modified model, the authoritarian parenting style is replaced by an independent construct encompassing communication and understanding between parents and youths. This model is actually not well theory-guided, at least in this study. However, it certainly provides insight in accounting for perceived well-being of Chinese adults living with school-age children.

# II. INTRODUCTION

The process of industrialization has brought to the world the rise in material wealth, which in turn more or less increases the objective living standards of people in various industrialized societies. However, when people are satisfied with their basic concerns of living, they begin to think what human life is all about. In other words, the continuous growth in material wealth not only improves the basic living standards of human beings, but also invites needs and expectations going beyond the content of basic living concerns. Davis and Fine-Davis (1991: 103) in a recent research report put at the very first beginning that we are clearly moving in the direction predicted nearly a half century ago by psychologist Edward C. Tolman. The prediction was that "the concept of 'economic man' would cease to dominate modern industrialized society and would be replaced by that of 'psychological man'". McCall (1975: 229) expresses a similar concern that there is "a feeling on the part of many people that modern industrial society, despite impressive gains in affluence, ease of communication, and leisure, has not made any significant overall progress in improving man's lot".

This seems to be a paradox in a relatively "well-off" society that it does not lead to a sense of "well-being" as experienced by people living in it. Liu (1976: 1-2) has made an observation of the U.S. society and indicates that "a discontent with the quality of life seems to have been growing faster than technological know-how and material wealth". He takes this as a product of such a transition period from an industrialization era towards a post-industrial stage. It is this "transition period, which leaves more time for thinking and leisure, makes it possible for people to move beyond their basic concerns of living to a humanistic concern for what living is all about". With such a move to the

humanistic-oriented psychology, as Liu (1976) puts it, human beings seek to improve the quality of life, in addition to striving for economic growth. Hence, a need for a satisfying and rewarding life is a natural consequence of being economic or material "well-off".

Clearly, the continuous economic growth in an industrialized society does not necessarily stand for a corresponding high level of quality of life. This can be judged from the fact that various social problems remain unsolved in many modern societies, for instance, increasing crime rate, housing problems, social inequality, pollutions to the physical environment, etc. Before we can seek paths to reduce our discontent with the society, what do we actually mean by the concept "quality of life"? To define "quality of life" is not an easy task. As Liu (1976: 6-7) points out, the rise of this concept in the United States "has been a response to those needs for information on social conditions related to a variety of dimensions of the national welfare beyond such economic measures as real income per capita". And long before such concept attracts focus of many researchers, GNP has been the conventional measure at the policy-making level "as a means of establishing goals and measuring achievement of the goals". But such a measure has been criticized for being not an appropriate index of welfare, so that "governments are recognizing that they must involve themselves with a wide variety of social conditions which affect our quality of life".

In response to such a growing concern in the United States, as Liu implies, the quality of life concept has reached its remarkable development during the later years of 1960's. However, no consensus is found among researchers as well as government agents as to what the quality of life is all about, how it should be defined or constructed.

Liu (1976: 10-11) has reviewed some conceptual definitions of quality of life made by various researchers in the early 70's and concluded that there are as many definitions as there are people. He writes, for examples, that Perloff has defined the concept "as elements or accounts of

comprehensive systems of data characterized by a balance between inputs and outputs or inflows and outflows, or providing the value of the total stock of various times in a total system". Whitman has considered it "an environmental evaluation system, which is said to be replicable, analytical, and comprehensive, broad enough to include all relevant types of environmental measurements and indicators as determined through an interdisciplinary perspective". Hornback and Shaw have conceptualized quality of life "as a function of the objective conditions held by persons in that population". Dalkey and Rourke have put it simply that the concept "is meant a person's sense of well-being, his satisfaction or dissatisfaction with life, or happiness or unhappiness".

Christakis and Terleckyz have related the concept to social goals and policy formulation, "and they specify and examine a multidimensional entity of many quality of life components between the desired and the actual levels". Lastly, Wingo and Liu have defined quality of life "in two dimensions: (1) the income or wealth which represents command over physical resources and is transferable, and (2) the psychological inputs which are personal, non-transferable, and related to the intensity of private, subjective gratifications". Obviously, the last definition of quality of life given by Wingo and Liu leads us to assess the quality of life according to the objective social conditions available to an individual, and that taking into account the subjective perception and evaluation on such external conditions by an individual.

McCall (1975) approaches the concept of quality of life in evaluative and collective senses. Being evaluative, it refers to the word "quality". In one respect, the word "quality" behaves as a comparative term, just like "weight" and "colour". In another respect, the word admits of degrees, for saying something of "high quality" implies it is better than something of "low quality". Being collective, it refers to the word "life". McCall states explicitly that "life ..... refers not to my life or your life ..... but to 'life in a certain

society', or 'life in a certain region of the earth's surface' " (p.232). Taking together, quality of life is defined as a comparative concept for evaluating living conditions in a certain society (or community within a society) according to certain criteria. McCall suggests the criteria be "the obtaining of the necessary conditions for happiness in a given society or region" (p.234). What he means by "necessary conditions for happiness, is the satisfaction of the "general happiness requirements". General happiness requirements refer to what is necessary "for an arbitrary member of the human species to be happy" which "do not vary from person to person" (p.234). In short, McCall relates the evaluation of quality of life in a given region to the extent to which the general happiness requirements are satisfied by the inhabitants.

McCall's notion of quality of life fails to specify clearly what substantive elements the general happiness requirements consist of , although he has roughly pointed out that the elements should include the basic human needs only, not other psychological wants or desires. Anyway, McCall's notion is somewhat similar to the two-dimension notion given by Wingo and Liu (in Liu, 1976). On one hand, basic human needs, no matter how ambiguously are defined, refer to objective social conditions. On the other hand, the extent to which people are satisfied with these needs is essentially the subjective perceptions of well-being experienced by the people.

Andrews (1974: 280) relates the level of life quality to the well-being of individuals. That means "the extent to which pleasure and satisfaction characterize human existence and the extent to which people can avoid the various miseries which are potentially the lot of each of us". He admits that little is known about the concept "well-being", "either in the make up of its constituent parts, or in the conditions and influences which tend to bring it about". But he makes his position explicit that "promotion of individual well-being, at least in the long run, is one of the legitimate goals --perhaps

the most important goal -- of the modern state" and such a promotion becomes "a worldwide phenomenon" (p.279).

In his later work with Withey (Andrews and Withey, 1976), they enlarge the "quality of life" concept to involve two different dimensions: one 'refers to an "outsider's" judgements of quality covered in such measures as crowding, decibels of noise pollution, reported crimes, income levels, etc.'; the other one refers "to the privately known and privately evaluated aspects of life" (p.4). In their point of view, quality of life cannot be adequately defined by physical variables, that is, the measures included in their first dimension of the definition. They adds that this position is shared by other researchers in the field, such as Campbell and Converse, Dalkey, and Bateson (Andrews and Withey, 1976: 44-45).

Campbell (1981) states that whatever we may term the measures of the way people experience their life, be it "quality of life" or "sense of well being", they are concerned in essence with the perceptions and feelings. Such subjective experience cannot be validly reflected by objective measures. These subjective perceptions and feelings require some subjective indicators. However, such indicators bring about imprecisions in the measurement process and we have to accept it. His formulation for the definition of well-being, in his own words, "is entirely subjective, known directly to the individual person and known to others only through that person's behaviour or verbal report" (p.14). In his eyes, people evaluate their well-being on the basis of the quality of their own experience, their feeling of being happy and contented, their sense of well-being. Hence, his conceptualization of quality of life, or sense of well-being used interchangeably, focuses on people's subjective and personal experience, and which is in line with what we have discussed so far.

Although various researchers have divergent views on the definition of "quality of life", they are, at least, convergent on the point that such a concept consists of dual focuses. The first, which has been developed much

earlier, is concerned with the measures of various physical conditions in the living environment. The second focus is on peoples's subjective evaluation and satisfaction with their privately experienced circumstances of life. But which of the dual dimensions can adequately indicate the quality of life, or in Andrews' term, the well-being of individuals in a society? The answer to this question leads us to an examination of the so-called "social indicators movement" first.

*Two Types of Social Indicators*

Scholars concerned with social indicators research share a consensus on what has stimulated the development of social indicators. Campbell (1976:117-118) points out that in 1960s, people realized that the conventional economic indicator, GNP, was unable to become the ultimate measure through which the degree of happiness and satisfaction could be assessed. Such realization has led to an energetic search "for a broader and more sensitive set of measures that will provide a fuller description of people's lives. This search has been described by Dudley Duncan as the social indicators 'movement', the development of new statistical series monitoring change in such areas of public life as education, health, employment, crime victimization, political participation, and population growth and movement". Schneider (1976: 297) describes the situation similarly that there "was the growing need of administrators throughout the 1960s for information measuring the impact of government programs and the effects of public policies". When the decision systems concerning allocation of resources "were introduced into domestic social welfare agencies, it became evident that the quality of the information and data about social conditions required by these systems far exceeded the quality of that available". The discrepancy between increasing demands and absence of quality data has stimulated, in Schneider's view, the social

indicators movement.

In the incipient stage of the movement, nearly all of the available data might be called objective social indicators. These indicators "describe events, behaviors, or characteristics of individuals that are reported through government institutions of one sort or another and do not depend on the individual's description of his own life" (Campbell, 1976: 118). Andrews (1974: 281) also classifies those indicators "which are ultimately based on counting the occurrences of given phenomena" as objective ones. In spite of the need for social indicators of measuring the impact of government programs, this is, according to Schneider, not the mainstream of social indicators research. The mainstream, as he states, is "on the part of scholars for more accurate descriptive data measuring the general state of society" (Schneider, 1976: 298). This shift of emphasis from administrative purpose to a more descriptive direction is a result of the growing concern of assessing the quality of life of society.

The ability of the objective social indicators to reflect the quality of life, however, becomes doubtful. As Andrews (1974: 283) explains, "the objective indicators which count rooms per person, or per capita income, or the member of automobiles or television sets, cannot be said to provide ..... indication about how people feel about the conditions of their lives". Campbell (1976: 118) also discusses the related matter that objective circumstances of life are surrogate indicators only and he believes "that the quality of life lies in the experience of life". Schneider (1976: 299) elaborates this point explicitly: "Despite the often found assumption that aggregate descriptive social indicators data actually reflect the quality of life felt by people, we have no reason to assume a priori that a correlation between objective and subjective conditions in fact exists". Refuting such a priori assumption, hence, he suggests to "distinguish a separate, more personal dimension to social well-being and the quality of life, a dimension not measured (nor possibly measurable) by most commonly found social indicators

data".

Other scholars hold a similar attitude towards the relationship between objective conditions and subjective perceptions. Andrews (1974: 283) believes that "there exists only a loose linkage between the objective conditions of people's lives and individuals' perceptions of well-being" whereas Campbell (1976: 118) points out that "the relationship between objective conditions and subjective experience must appear very imperfect". Given this criticism of the ability of objective social indicators, scholars tend to develop direct measures tapping people's evaluation of their own well-being, or quality of life.

After reviewing considerable literature, Schneider (1975: 499) concludes that "there is a fairly widespread agreement that subjective life quality is related to such aspects of personal life as aspirations, expectations, happiness, and satisfaction. Moreover, recent research has tended to focus on satisfaction as the most useful indicator of subjective life quality". Wasserman and Chua (1980: 365) hold a similar view that subjective quality of life of individuals is measured by their subjective satisfaction with various dimensions of their lives. They further suggest "three types of measures of subjective satisfaction: (1) Specific Life Variables (e.g. satisfaction with personal happiness and with one's life style), (2) Specific Life Domain Variables (e.g. satisfaction with quality of housing and health), and (3) Global Life Space Variables (e.g. satisfaction with community and local recreational facilities)".

On the other hand, Campbell (1976: 119) summarizes three earlier approaches to develop measures of subjective indicators of well-being. The first approach, as developed mainly by Hadley Cantril during the early 1960s, "conceptualized well-being as a cognitive experience in which the individual compared his perception of his present situation to a situation which he aspired to, expected, or felt he deserved. The discrepancy between his perceived life and his aspired to life is expressed in a measure of satisfaction-dissatisfaction, and

greater satisfaction is taken as an indicator of a sense of well-being". The second approach, as represented by Norman Bradburn, was "concerned with the subjective feeling states that individuals experience in their daily lives". Hence, the emphasis was put on "the affective aspects of experience". The third approach was a series of attempts to tap individuals' perceptions of general happiness in life as well as stress by means of assessing "the experience of large populations by procedures derived from psychiatric practice".

After a brief examination of the different contents between objective and subjective social indicators, it seems that subjective indicators have advantage over objective ones to reflect people's sense of well-being. Scholars involving in social indicators research tend to assess the quality of life by adopting the subjective approach, with the emphasis on measuring individuals' subjective satisfaction with various life domains they experience daily. Here comes the main research problem. What are the empirical measures of life satisfaction actually concerned with? And how can such measures give rise to the overall assessment of the sense of well-being?

# III. LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH PROBLEMS

The subjective social indicators research, as summarized by Davis and Fine-Davis (1990), consists of mainly two diverse approaches. The first may be called the "Michigan approach" which has started in the early 1970s at the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center. The dominant figures of this approach include Andrews and Withey, Campbell and Converse, and their colleagues. As Davis and Fine-Davis (1990: 111) reports:

> "This train of research has utilized nationwide sample surveys which have largely focused on well-being and perceived life quality as dependent variables. Demographic characteristics have been examined as determinants ..... and well-being in various life domains has been explored, leading to a greater understanding of which life domains are more salient or predictive of overall sense of well-being."

The General Social Survey carried out by the National Opinion Research Center and the University of Chicago is another approach to subjective social indicators research in the United States. This Survey is conducted continually and regularly with the aims of tapping the American population's social-psychological and socio-political attitudes, particular those to social issues.

The Michigan approach deals directly with quality of life of people by tapping their subjective satisfaction with various life domains. However, this approach offers only a description of how people privately evaluate their lives, and it does not take into consideration to what extent how socio-political issues exert influence on such evaluation and satisfaction. On the

other hand, the approach demonstrated by the General Social Survey provides opportunity for researchers to make sense of the social and political impacts of any government or collective actions in a society according to the attitudes reflected by people towards such social and political issues. This approach resembles the need of social indicators measuring the impact of government programs during the incipient stage of the social indicators movement. Hence, the General Social Survey suffers from inability to depict the general well-being of the society.

*Life Satisfaction as Subjective Measure of Well-Being*

Among scholars involving in the subjective social indicators research, Andrews and Withey perhaps are the earliest to develop a conceptual model for studying subjective sense of well-being. The terms "quality of life" and "well-being" are usually used interchangeably in literature concerning social indicators research, and they seem to carry almost the same connotation in the literature. Andrews and Withey (1976) suggest that empirical indicators of well-being should be conceived "as occurring at several levels of specificity. The most global indicators are those that refer to life as a whole; they are not specific to any one particular aspect of life" (p.10). What constitute the more specific level are general evaluations on life concerns, which are "aspects of life about which people have feelings". They further divide life concerns into "domains" and "criteria" (or "values"). According to their explanation, domains are "aspects of life that can be evaluated in the light of one's values". Criteria or values are those by which one judges or evaluates how one feels about the various domains of life. From the results of their own empirical research, Andrews and Withey have identified a list of domains including mainly the "social institutions (people, facilities,

functions, and services) created to meet people's needs and aspiration" (p.12). On the other hand, the criteria are found to be "a somewhat shared dream to be loved, liked and accepted, responsible, respected, somewhat independent, somewhat secure, interested in life, comfortable, competent, successful, and to have fun" (ibid.). Although the criteria are abstract enough to carry diverse meanings to different people, Andrews and Withey are not worried about it. Instead, they are much concerned with people divergent in how much of the criteria and in what domains people want the criteria.

With the domains and criteria in hand, Andrews and Withey then devise a two-dimensional conceptual model of subjective quality of life. This model provides "the framework in which a person's actual evaluations of well-being are hypothesized to occur" (p.13). The framework "shows evaluations at three level of specificity". To obtain one's overall evaluation on a particular life domain, we can look at how one perceives that domain in a range of relevant criteria. Secondly, to know how one feels about a particular criterion or value in one's life, we can assess to what extent such a criterion or value is fulfilled in various life domains. Finally, to make sense of how one feels about life as a whole, we can simply combine the overall evaluations on all life domains based on the entire set of relevant criteria, or the total fulfillment of all criteria in all life domains. Hence, the quality of life, as Andrews and Withey put it, "is not just a matter of the conditions of one's physical, interpersonal and social setting but also a matter of how these are judged and evaluated by oneself and others. The values that one brings to bear on life are in themselves determinants of one's assessed quality of life" (p.12).

Milbrath and Sahr (1975) studies the quality of life in a somewhat

similar but less sophisticated manner. They start their work on defining and measuring perceptions of environmental quality. Although they admit of inadequacy of their measure, they still believe that the theory behind it "could be extended to develop an overall quality of life measure" (p.433). Their measure of environmental quality consists of "judgements about the importance of various environmental elements in a person's total quality of life" (p.398). By "quality" they mean "being highly pleased with environmental elements that are very important to a person" (p.428). Hence, there are two components in their notion of measuring environmental quality. The first is an individual's feelings of pleasure or displeasure with his environmental elements; the second is the importance of these elements rated by an individual. Their own empirical findings showed some thirty-seven environmental elements clustering around eleven factors (or in Andrews and Withey's term, eleven domains).

From the results obtained from measuring pleasure-displeasure and importance, Milbrath and Sahr construct two index scores of environmental quality. The first index is an average score on feelings component summed across all the environmental elements for a given respondent. The second one is an average score on feelings component "for only those elements considered very important or absolutely essential with the absolutely essential elements given a double weighting" (p.428). They assess the two indices by applying them to the data in their study and conclude that both indices perform quite similarly, hence, weighting had a negligible impact on construction of environmental quality index.

Andrews and Withey (1976) states that the global measure of quality of life may not necessarily be a simple additive combination of evaluation on various life domains. But the research and analysis conduct by Milbrath

and Sahr (1975) implies the possibility that the overall measure of quality of life may be a simple average of such feelings of pleasure or displeasure summed across all the life domains. As Davis and Fine-Davis (1991: 290) point out, "previous research has shown that life satisfaction is a linear additive combination of satisfaction in various life domains (e.g. health, work, housing, family, etc.), and that these domains account for a high proportion of the valid variance in measures of overall well-being". In other words, the overall quality of life, or sense of well-being, can be reflected by global indicators including measures of happiness and satisfaction with life in general. And these global measures can be predicted by a number of indicators measuring satisfaction with various life domains.

*Towards a Causal Analysis for Well-Being*

The linear additive combination of satisfaction in various life domains is not the only approach to determine overall sense of well-being. Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976: 10) point out that "sense of satisfaction is undoubtedly a highly personal experience" and the "affective content" in experiences of satisfaction may be different from that of dissatisfaction. On the other hand, Andrews and Withey (1976: 215) share a similar view that "there seem to be no clear and directly observable phenomena that can serve as criteria" to evaluate measures of feelings about life. Sense of well-being is a kind of feeling that is subjective and internal to the people who hold it. Hence, what we seek to measure is inherently an unobservable phenomenon. To tap the unobserved, internal feelings by observed measures requires the use of structural models. Such models offer description and analysis of "a network of relationships among observed measures and a set of theoretical assumptions about how the

measures link to concepts and how the concepts link to one another" (Andrews and Withey, 1976: 215).

1. Affect-Cognition Model

One of the commonly tested causal models concerning sense of well-being involves affective and cognitive components as the determining factors. This type of causal model has received lengthy discussions by Abbey and Andrews (1986), Andrews and McKennell (1980), Andrews and Withey (1976), Horley and Little (1985), McKennell (1978), and McKennell and Andrews (1980). However, the discussion on the affective contents of well-being can be dated back to the studies done by Norman Bradburn and his colleagues in the 1960s (Bradburn, 1969; Bradburn and Caplovitz, 1965).

In his studies, Bradburn relates sense of well-being to the feeling of happiness about life in general. He writes (Bradburn, 1969) that: "A person's position on the dimension of psychological well-being is seen as a resultant of the individual's position on two independent dimensions - one of positive affect and the other of negative affect." He concludes from the empirical findings that these two dimensions are independent of one another, "making it impossible to predict an individual's score on the negative affect dimension from any knowledge of his score on the positive affect dimension and vice versa". Bradburn further defines negative affect in terms of variables indicating "difficulties in marriage and work adjustment, interpersonal tensions, and feelings of having a 'nervous breakdown', as well as anxiety and worry". Positive affect, he writes, "appears to be related to a series of factors concerning the degree to which an individual is involved in the environment around him, social contact, and active interest

in the world" (p.12). To develop operational measures for the two dimensions of affect, Bradburn states that "it would be difficult to know how to go about constructing such a sample of items [reflecting a wide range of positive and negative experiences] since the limits of the population [of possible positive and negative feeling states] are not known"(p.54). In addition, Bradburn assumes that "people tend to code their experience in terms of (among other things) their affective tone --positive, neutral, or negative ..... the particular content of the experience is not important". As a result, his measures of positive and negative affect include items "as general as possible and to focus attention on the affective tone of the feelings rather than on the particular experiences that give rise to the feelings"(p.55). Finally, each of the scales for positive and negative affect consists of five general items. These scales are named by other researchers as "Bradburn's Affect Scales", which are widely used in subsequent studies of similar kind. The items of these scales will be described in details in the next chapter concerning operationalization of concepts.

Following the conceptual framework laid down by Bradburn, researchers further propose in subsequent studies that assessment of overall well-being is influenced by three underlying theoretical constructs: the negative affect, the positive affect, and the cognitive evaluation. Abbey and Andrews (1986: 90-91) write that " 'affect' refers to an emotional, 'from-the-gut' reaction, and 'cognitive' refers to an intellectual, 'from-the-head' evaluation." The theoretical foundation of this causal structure lies in the subjective nature of perceived well-being. Andrews and McKennell (1980; McKennell and Andrews, 1980; McKennell, 1978) discuss this intensively and write that "self-reports of well-being are reports about attitudes", and the "usefulness of analyzing attitudes in terms of their affective and cognitive

components" is well established (1980: 130).

With regard to the affective components, these two researchers have taken Bradburn's affect scales as the best available measures of affect. Referring to the cognitive component, they state that "no direct or even proxy indicators of cognition were available, the considerable variance in the global ratings [of well-being] which remained after the affect scales were partialled out and allowance was made for correlation method effects was attributed to cognition" (McKennell and Andrews, 1980: 258). They call this treatment of defining cognition as "a process of residualization. The cognitive factor is what the global well-being measures share that is *not* affect (either positive or negative) and that is *not* attributable to common method effects. This approach to defining a cognitive factor, despite its being indirect, seems well-supported by both theory and analytic results ..... there is substantial evidence that some kind of cognitive mental process seems to be one of the underlying factors that influence attitudes" (Andrews and McKennell, 1980: 139; italics theirs).

While Bradburn (1969) has related sense of well-being exclusively to feeling of happiness, other researchers, especially those mentioned at the beginning of this section, consider both happiness and satisfaction the measures of people's perception of well-being. Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) have made a concise comment on the definitions of happiness and satisfaction :

> "In Bradburn's terminology, happiness is taken to be a product of the presence of positive feelings and the absence of negative feelings, and this 'affect-balance' definition, which partials out the satisfaction component that is implicit in the common use of the term, is perhaps the conceptually cleanest statement describing happiness available. The concept of

> satisfaction, on the other hand, has been the subject of much theory and research, both in the level of aspiration tradition of Kurt Lewin and the relative deprivation theme of Robert Merton. Level of satisfaction can be precisely defined as the perceived discrepancy between aspiration and achievement, ranging from the perception of fulfillment to that of deprivation. Satisfaction implies a judgmental or cognitive experience, while happiness suggests an experience of feeling or affect." (p.8)

This conceptual distinction between happiness as affective experience and satisfaction as cognitive experience has received agreement from other researchers. McKennell (1978) has hypothesized and found support from empirical data that "while happiness and life satisfaction ratings each load substantially on both the cognitive and affective factors, cognition is tapped to a marginally greater extent by the satisfaction ratings, and affect by the happiness ratings" (p.398). The cognitive nature of satisfaction indicates, as written by McKennell (1978), "a reference group or relative deprivation phenomenon". Michalos (1980) has reviewed considerable literature and reports that many studies are successful in linking satisfaction to an aspiration-achievement gap. In addition, he finds some studies support the idea that satisfaction involves two comparisons, namely, the perceived achievement-aspiration difference, and the difference between one's own perceived achievement and that one's selected reference person.

2. Parent-Youth Relation Model

Apart from the influence of affect and cognition, we suspect that parent-child relationship can be another source that exerts impact on the global ratings of well-being. This is based simply on the fact that all of our respondents have children attending secondary schools at the age of adolescence. Parents can no longer exert total control on their children when they proceed from childhood to the period of adolescence. With the cognitive development, adolescents begin to have the ability "to make sense of experience, submit it to rational self-reflection, and reach valid conclusions about reality as it is and as it ought to be" (Youniss and Smoller, 1985: 8). Hence, parents are no longer the only sources of validators and authorities for their children's daily life experiences. This leads to a reformulation of the parent-youth relationship. The "unilateral authority" held by parents has to give way to the more cooperative relationships between parents and their adolescent offspring" (Youniss and Smoller, 1985: 72-74). If the parents fail to recognize and adapt to such relational change, parent-youth conflicts will be resulted without surprise.

For a married person, the fundamental social relationships develop within the context of family. The spousal relationship and the parent-child relationship are central in the context of family. Campbell (1981) states that people who differ in patterns of social relationships show sharp differences in the degree of perceived well-being. He makes comparison between married and unmarried persons and concludes that unmarried persons perceive their life as somewhat less happy and contented than those married. In our sample, however, all respondents have married and only a minority of them (about 8% of total respondents) are not living together with their spouses. Contrast between married and unmarried persons becomes meaningless.

On the other hand, we may find among the respondents different

patterns of parent-youth relationship, and which is expected to have impact on the respondents' perception of well-being. Baumrind (1978) has identified from her series of studies three prototypic parental disciplinary patterns. The first type is the *authoritarian* parents who believe "in keeping the child in a subordinate role and in restricting his autonomy", and do "not encourage verbal give and take, believing that the child should accept a parent's word for what is right. Authoritarian parents may be very concerned and protective or they may be neglecting" (Baumrind, 1978: 224).

The second type is the *permissive* parents who play the role "as a resource for the child to use as he wishes, but not as an active agent responsible for shaping and altering the child's ongoing and future behavior" (Baumrind, 1978: 224).

The third type is the *authoritative* parents who "direct the child's activities in a rational issue-oriented manner. He or she encourages verbal give and take, shares with the child the reasoning behind parental policy, and solicits the child's objections when the child refuses to conform". When the child disobeys, the authoritative parents exert firm control but do not "hem the child in with restriction". They enforce the adult perspective but recognize "the child's individual interests and special ways", and also set "standards for future conduct, using reason as well as power and shaping by regimen and reinforcement to achieve parental objectives" (Baumrind, 1978: 245).

Dornbusch *et al.* (1987: 1246-1247) have developed three indices of parenting styles which roughly conform to Baumrind's prototypic parenting styles. First, the authoritarian index deals with three aspects of family behaviours: family communication, parental responses to children

getting poor school grades, and parental responses to good grades. There are totally eight indicators for these three aspects. Family communication consists of items that "parents tell the youth not to argue with adults", that the youth "will know better when grown up", and that "parents are correct and should not be questioned". Parental responses to poor grades include the parents getting upset, reducing the youth's allowance, and even grounding the youth. Responses to good grades include parents telling the youth to do even better, and noting that other grades should be as good.

Second, the authoritative index also deals with family behaviours including the same three aspects as that of the authoritarian index. There are totally nine indicators, four for family communication, two for responses to good grades, and the other three for responses to poor grades. The four indicators for family communication involve "parents telling the youth to look at both sides of issues", "admitting that the youth sometimes know more" , "talking about politics within the family", and "emphasizing that everyone should help with decisions in the family". For responses to good grades, indicators are "parents praising the student", and "giving more freedom to make decisions". The last three indicators for responses to poor grades consist of "parents taking away freedom", "encouraging the student to try harder", and "offering to help" the youth.

Third, the permissive index is formed by eight items dealing mostly with parental attitudes towards the youth's academic affairs. These eight items include: "hard work in school is not important to the parents", "don't care if the student gets bad grades", "don't care if the student gets good grades", "no rules concerning watching television", "not involved in education", "do not attend school programs for parents", "do not help with homework", and "do not check the child's homework".

We can see from the indices proposed by Dornbusch *et al.* that

authoritarian parenting style focuses on one-way communication which emphasizes obedience and respect for authority. On the contrary, the authoritative parenting style enhances mutual understanding through open communication between parents and adolescents, and encourages verbal give-and-take. As mentioned before, the parent-child interaction during the period of adolescence has to change from the pattern of unilateral authority to the cooperative pattern. Hence, it is believed that parents exercising authoritative style may be adaptable to such relational change without much difficulty. However, authoritarian parents may find them irritated when their adolescent offspring begin to challenge the parental authority. On the basis of the different adaptation to change in parent-youth relationship, we can derive a causal model that accounts for variation in parental perceptions of well-being.

After reviewing the aforementioned relevant literature, our research problems can be phrased in the following terms: Which domains of life are most determining in perceptions of parental well-being? Do fathers and mothers show different patterns of life domains that determine their sense of well-being? Are such perceptions attitude in nature that can be explained by the parents' affective and cognitive feelings about their life? Can parenting styles and parent-youth relationship exert impact on perceived overall well-being of parents?

# IV. RESEARCH DESIGN AND HYPOTHESES SETTING

## A. Source of Data

The data for this study come from the part of parent-survey of the Survey on Leisure Activities and Family Life of Secondary School Students, carried out in 1985 under the auspices of the then Centre for Hong Kong Studies (now the Hong Kong Institute of Asia-Pacific Studies), The Chinese University of Hong Kong. This survey consists of two parts, one has students as the subjects, and their parents constitute the sample of the second part. Hence, the students and their parents form a matched sample for the survey as a whole. The student-survey was a follow-up survey of the same kind conducted a year before, i.e. 1984. The student sample in 1985 was intended to be identical with that of 1984.

According to the report by the investigators of the 1984-survey (Ng and Man, 1988:6-8), the sample students involving in the 1984-survey amounted to 1898 valid cases. The population from which the sample comes out consists of "both male and female students studying in Form/Middle 1 and Form/Middle 4 during the 1983-84 school year in Hong Kong". The sampling procedures included first asking for a list of Government, aided, and private schools for 1983-84 from the Education Department of the Government. The initial number of schools was 354 and which was cross-classified by type of school (i.e. Government, aided, private) and by area (Hong Kong Island, Kowloon, New Territories). The sample schools were drawn to reflect approximately the same areal distribution of schools. The sample consisted of 8 government schools, 16 aided, and 6 private. Government schools were oversampled because a proportional sample would yield only one or two to be selected. Schools

were randomly selected from within their own classification category.

In 1985, the follow-up student-survey was again conducted in the same schools to the same students as in 1984. The then Form/Middle 1 students had promoted to Form/Middle 2 and they constituted again part of the sample in 1985. However, there were some difficulties in contacting again the 1984 Form/Middle 4 students. Finally, the new Form/ Middle 4 students in the same schools formed the remaining part of the sample for the 1985 survey. The parents of this 1985 sample students are the ultimate source of data in the present study. In our parent sample, a total of 1085 respondents answered our questionnaires in a face-to-face interview format administered by interviewers in the respondents' home. There were 528 (48.7%) male and 557 (51.3%) female respondents in our sample.

B. Operationalization of Variables

With regard to the dependent variables measuring overall sense of well-being, the following questions are asked:

(1) In general, are you satisfied with your present life?

(2) Broadly speaking, do you feel happy or unhappy about your life?

For the first question, respondents rate their global life satisfaction on a five-point scale ranging from "very dissatisfied" to "very satisfied", plus "fair" as the mid-point.

For the second question, global life happiness rating is based on another five-point scale with "very unhappy" and "very happy" as the two extreme options, plus "fair" in the middle. Besides the five response categories for both questions, respondents are also given an off-scale item, "don't know", as an alternative response.

Referring to the independent variables, we have the following twenty-

two domains of life as predictors of the global life satisfaction and happiness:

| | |
|---|---|
| (1) Job | (2) Income |
| (3) Living Quarter | (4) Living building |
| (5) Living district | (6) Television |
| (7) Radio | (8) Newspapers |
| (9) Magazines | (10) Family life |
| (11) Relation to children | (12) Relation to spouse |
| (13) Entertainment | (14) Government |
| (15) District Boards or Urban Council | (16) Interaction with other people |
| (17) Current Achievement | (18) Relation to parents |
| (19) Relation to siblings | (20) Relation to friends |
| (21) Relation to neighbours | (22) Self-assessed health |

For the first 17 domains, respondents evaluate their degree of satisfaction according to a five-point scale ranging from "very dissatisfied" to "very satisfied", with "fair" as the mid-point. The remaining domains, except the last, are rated on another five-point scale, with the response categories as "very bad", "quite bad", "fair", "quite good" , "very good". The last domain, self-assessed health, is evaluated according simply to a three-point scale with "bad", "fair", "good". Like the dependent global measures, an off-scale item "don't know" is also provided to respondents for evaluating all domains.

In the affect-cognition model, there is one endogenous dependent construct which is indicated by two observable variables: (1) satisfaction with life in general, and (2) happiness about overall life. Both of them have been discussed above. On the other hand, there are three exogenous

constructs assumed to have causal effect on the dependent construct. The first two are the positive and negative affect. According to the items proposed by Bradburn (1969), we include four items indicating positive affect in our study. Respondents are asked repeatedly the question wordings, "During the past few months, did you ever feel ..... ", plus the following items:

(1) particularly excited or interested in something?

(2) proud because someone complimented you on something you had done?

(3) pleased about having accomplished something?

(4) that things were going your way?

Then, respondents are asked in the same way to measure their negative affect by the following items:

(1) so restless that you couldn't sit long in a chair?

(2) very lonely or remote from other people?

(3) bored?

(4) depressed or very unhappy?

(5) upset because someone criticized you?

The response categories available to both affect measures is either "yes" or "no", or simply "don't know".

The third independent latent construct is concerned with congition. Although literature has shown that there is no direct indicators of cognition, we explore the content of the cognitive component by two questions:

(1) Comparing with other people, do you think your life is good or not good?

(2) Comparing your present life with that a year ago, which one do you think is happier?

Response categories available to respondents for the first question include "not good", "good", "about the same", or "don't know". For the second question, respondents can choose among "happier a year ago", "about the same", "happier now", or "don't know". The basis on which we use two questions to explore the content of cognition is that the construct involves evaluation of something according to certain criteria. McKennell and Andrews (1980) interpret cognition as a process of judgements whereby relativism enter into it.

For another structural model, the parent-youth relation model, there are two dependent constructs and two independent constructs. One of the dependent constructs deals with perceived well-being that is the same as in the affect-cognition model. The other dependent construct represents the concept "parent-youth relation" which has five indicators as follows:

(1) satisfaction with the relation to their children;

(2) how frequent the respondents have different opinions from their children;

(3) in the past week, how frequent the respondents talked to their child;

(4) the degree to which the respondents understand their children;

(5) the degree of respondents' perceived understanding by their children.

The first item is rated on the five-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale. The second item has four response categories as "none", "occasional", "quite frequent", and "almost every day". The third item has four options as "almost none", "seldom", "quite frequent", and "very frequent". The last two items are rated on a four-point scale with categories as "completely not understand", "quite not understand", "quite understand", and "completely

understand". For all the five items, there is an additional off-scale response as "don't know".

The two independent constructs in the parent-youth relation model are concerned with authoritarian, as well as authoritative parenting style. In Baumrind's (1978) original conceptualization of parenting styles, and subsequently their operationalization by Dornbusch *et al.* (1987), it involves three types, namely, authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive. In our study, however, we have only the items indicating the authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles.

We have three questions asking about authoritarian parenting style:

(1) Do you frequently tell your child that parents are correct and should not be questioned?

(2) If your child argues with you, will you tell him/her that he or she will know better when grow up?

(3) If your child argues a problem with you, will you tell him/her not to argue with adults?

For authoritative parenting style, three questions are used to measure the concept:

(1) Do you frequently teach your child to look at both sides of issues?

(2) Do you frequently tell your child that he or she sometimes know more than adults?

(3) Do you frequently talk about current issues or social problems with your child in the family?

Respondents answer the above six questions according to a four-point scale with options "never", "occasionally", "often", "and "frequently", plus an off-scale element "don't know".

C. Hypotheses Setting

Of the 22 domains of life measured, some are more private to and situated in a more immediate life-space of the respondents, while others are events concerning more about the public and wider social setting. Andrews and Withey (1976:148) have found that life concerns which are "close and immediate to person's personal lives" show strongest relationships to, and also exert direct influence on the perceptions of general well-being.

Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) write similarly that sense of well-being "is jointly governed by two somewhat related factors: the scope of the domain and its apparent centrality in life experience". The distinction of life space between private and public, immediate and distant, central and not central, etc., can be viewed alternatively in terms of the context in which an individual derives his/her life experience. People in society are integrated into a network of groups. A group can be roughly conceived as covering many kinds of conscious human interaction among its members. In modern society, people belong to many groups, such as family, profession, sex, religion, nation, voluntary association, etc. Memberships in these groups provide people with contexts in which life experience is derived. In terms of the nature of social contacts among members, groups are conceptually distinguished between primary groups and secondary groups. Primary groups are those in which members come to know each others intimately as individual personalities. This is achieved through social contacts that are informal, intimate, personal, and total in that they involve many parts of life experience. Secondary groups involve social contacts that are formal, impersonal, segmental, and utilitarian. A member in a secondary group is not concerned with the other person as a person but as a functionary who is filling a role (Horton and Hunt, 1984: 194-195). The distinction between primary and secondary groups resembles the ideas of categorizing life space into

private/public, immediate/distant, or degree of centrality as implied by Andrews and Withey (1976), and Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976).

Previous research informs that overall sense of well-being is determined by the linear additive combination of satisfaction in various life domains. Together with the distinction of life space, we hypothesize that:

(H1) Global life satisfaction is significantly predicted by satisfaction with the private and immediate life domains such as living unit, family life, entertainment, current achievement, relation to spouse, relation to children, and self-assessed health.

(H2) Other life domains that are public or distant to oneself, such as satisfaction with living district, government handling local affairs, interaction with others, and relations to people other than spouse and children, are not significant determinants of global satisfaction.

The traditional sex roles require different commitments for men and women. The world of work and economic activity forms the central concern for men. On the other hand, women are occupied by the commitment to the family. It is assumed that the conventional roles of bread-winner for men and housewife for women may bring to different patterns of domain satisfaction contributing to the overall life satisfaction (Bharadwaj and Wilkening, 1977: 425).

The preliminary analysis shows that our respondents are lowly educated with the majority of them having completed primary education or below. Out of the 557 female respondents in our sample, over two-thirds of them are house-wives. On the contrary, more than 85 per cent of males have full time jobs. The whole sample together gives us a picture of lower

class middle-aged people. The picture is characterized by the following figures: over 60 per cent of respondents are between 40 and 54 years of age; over 60 per cent of them are only primary educated or below; about 45 per cent of the working respondents have occupations of low rank as production and related labourers; about 64 per cent of them have family monthly income under $6000 (in 1985 price); nearly 60 per cent of them are living in public housing estates. With such characteristics of our sample, we believe that our respondents are still tied to the traditional sex roles: men are bread-winners and women commit much of their time to the family. Hence we hypothesize more specifically that:

(H3) Among the significant predictors, satisfaction with job, income, living unit, current achievement and health are relatively stronger predictors for men. These domains are material- or self-oriented in nature.

(H4) Satisfaction with family life, relations to spouse, children, neighbours and friends are the stronger predictors of global life satisfaction for women. These domains are family- or relational-oriented in nature.

Since most of the life domains are rated on the dissatisfied-satisfied scale, it is expected that their correlations with global happiness are lower than those with global satisfaction. Nevertheless, the arguments made in setting hypotheses for predicting global satisfaction are also applicable to global happiness. Hence, we put the hypotheses concerning prediction of global happiness as follows:

(H5) The percentage of total variation in global happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction.

(H6) Global happiness, like global satisfaction, is significantly

predicted by satisfaction with the private and immediate life domains involving family life, entertainment, current achievement, relation to spouse, relation to children, self-assessed health, and living quarter.

(H7) Satisfaction with job, income, living unit, current achievement and health are relatively stronger predictors for men. The percentage of total variation in global happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction.

(H8) Domains concerning family life, relations to spouse, children, neighbours and friends are stronger predictors for women. The percentage of total variation in global happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction.

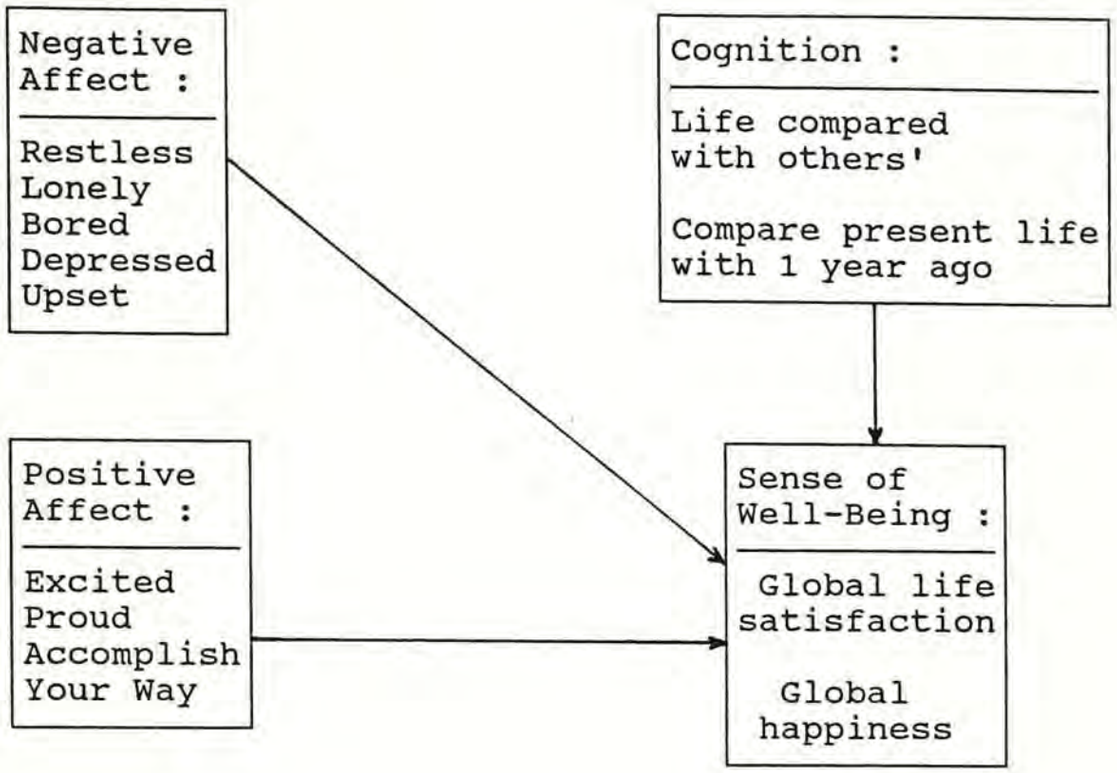
With regard to the affect-cognition model, we propose the following hypothesis:

(H9) Sense of well-being is influenced by the positive affect, negative affect, and cognitive comparison with others' life and with one's life a year ago.

(10) There is no relationship among the latent constructs of affects and cognition.

Figure 4.1 depicts the affect-cognition model.

**Figure 4.1. Affect-Cognition Model**



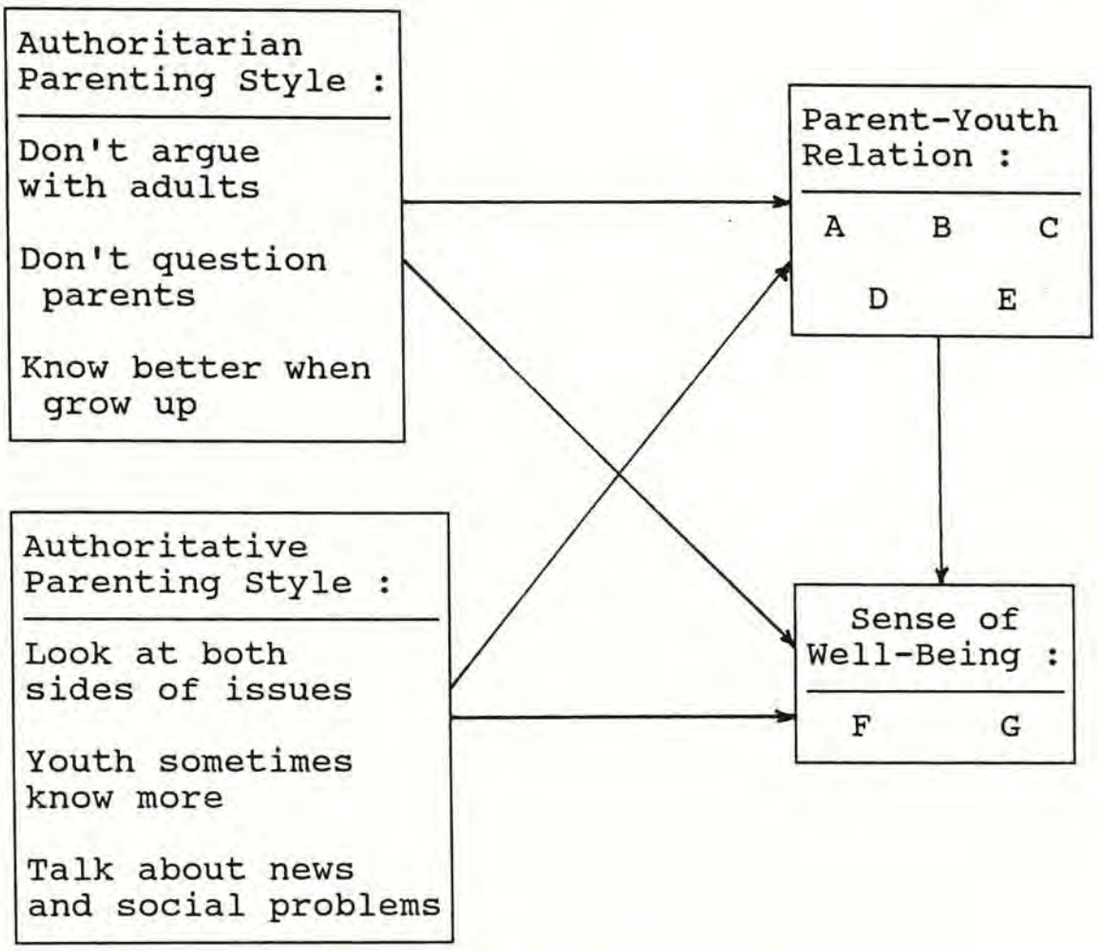

To test the applicability of the parent-youth model to the reality, we hypothesize that:

(H11) Two parenting styles simultaneously influence parent-youth relation as well as perception of well being, and parent-youth relation also has causal effect on perception of well-being.

The parent-youth relation model is presented in Figure 4.2.

In the following chapters, the results of testing the above eleven hypotheses will be presented, together with some statistical distributions of variables for our sample of parents.

**Figure 4.2. Parent-Youth Relation Model**




A: Satisfaction with relation to child
B: Conflict views with child
C: Talked to child last week
D: Understand child
E: Perceived understanding by child
F: Global Life Satisfaction
G: Global happiness

# V. PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

All respondents in our sample have at least one school-aged child studying Form /Middle 2 or Form /Middle 4 in Hong Kong secondary schools. Children at such age can be called the youths, and therefore, our respondents are either fathers or mothers of youths in Hong Kong. There are totally 1085 respondents in our sample of whom 557 are mothers (51.3 per cent) and the remaining 528 are fathers (48.7 per cent).

Our sample is not completely comparable with the Hong Kong population in 1986. It is due to the fact that our sample actually involve a cohort of middle-age parents. However, the 1986 By-census (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 1986) does not contain information directly comparable to our sample. The reader should remind that the comparison of our sample with the whole population in 1986 found elsewhere in the text gives a rough picture for reference only.

Age

In general, about 80 per cent of them are aged between 35 and 54. More specifically, mothers are relatively younger than fathers, for 52.9 per cent of mothers are aged below 45 compared with 25.6 per cent for fathers. The detailed age distribution is shown in Table 5.1. We can see that the median age of mothers is 44.2 which is lower than that 49.6 of fathers, and the median age for the whole sample is 47.1.

**Table 5.1. Age Distribution of Respondents**

| Age Group | Male(%) | Female(%) | Overall(%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Under 30 | 1.9 | 2.5 | 2.2 |
| 30-34 | 0.4 | 2.5 | 2.2 |
| 35-39 | 5.9 | 23.5 | 14.9 |
| 40-44 | 17.4 | 24.4 | 21.0 |
| 45-49 | 25.6 | 20.8 | 23.1 |
| 50-54 | 26.5 | 16.2 | 21.2 |
| 55-59 | 11.0 | 6.3 | 8.6 |
| 60-64 | 6.6 | 1.6 | 4.1 |
| 65 & over | 3.8 | 0.9 | 2.3 |
| No answer | 0.9 | 1.3 | 1.1 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| (N) | (528) | (557) | (1085) |
| Median age | 49.6 | 44.2 | 47.1 |

Education

Our respondents are relatively lowly educated; over 64 per cent of them have completed primary education or below. Comparing the two sexes, fathers are better educated than mothers, for 21.9 per cent of the former have completed upper secondary education or above (i.e. Form 4 or above), but only 16.5 per cent of the latter have attained the same education level. Furthermore, 28.7 per cent of the female respondents report that they have received no formal schooling, while only 15.2 per cent of the male respondents make such claim. Table 5.2 shows the detailed education level of our respondents.

Comparing our sample with the population in Hong Kong in 1986 (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 1986), our sample is not in short of people completing tertiary education (i.e. post-secondary to post-graduate qualification in our sample); 6.9 per cent for our sample and 7.2 per cent for the population in Hong Kong. Rather, there is far fewer people in our sample that have attained upper secondary or matriculation standard than the whole population of Hong Kong, the percentage is 14.9 and 31.3

respectively. On the contrary, 64.2 per cent of our respondents are primary educated or below, compared with 43.3 per cent for the population in Hong Kong. In conclusion, the respondents in our sample are lower educated than the whole population in Hong Kong. This is reflected by the fact that more people in our sample have received only primary education or below, but only half of them have attained upper secondary or matriculation standard compared with their counterparts of the whole population in Hong Kong.

**Table 5.2. Education Level of Respondents (in per cent)**

| Education Level | Male | Female | Overall | 1986[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| No formal Schooling | 15.2 | 28.7 | 22.1 | 14.1 |
| Primary | 41.5 | 42.7 | 42.1 | 29.2 |
| Form/Middle 1-3 | 15.3 | 11.3 | 13.3 | 18.2 |
| Form/Middle 4 to Matriculation | 18.2 | 11.8 | 14.9 | 31.3 |
| Post secondary or Professional training | 3.0 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.9[b] |
| University | 6.3 | 2.5 | 4.3 | 4.3[c] |
| Post-graduate | 0.2 | --- | 0.1 | --- |
| No answer | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.6 | --- |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| (N) | (528) | (557) | (1085) | (4149050) |

[a] This column reflects the overall pattern of population in Hong Kong in 1986. (Source: Hong Kong 1986 By-Census: Main Report Vol. 1. Census and Statistics Department, Hong Kong).

[b] In the By-Census Report, this catergory is reported as "Teritary: Non-degree courses".

[c] In the By-Census Report, this catergory is reported as "Teritary: Degree courses".

Occupation

More than two-thirds (68.4 per cent) of the mothers in our sample are house-wives. Of those who are working, only 26 out of 173 (15 per cent) working mothers hold professional , technical, administrative, or managerial posts. And 82 out of 173 (47.4 per cent) working mothers are in the lower ranks of occupation as production and related labourers. On the

contrary, only 14.2 per cent of fathers report having no work. Of the working fathers, 91 out of 451 (20.2 per cent) hold professional, technical, administrative, or managerial posts. Another 200 working males, or 44.3 per cent, are production and related labourers. Hence, a large portion of our female respondents are non-working mothers, and those who are working are in occupations of somewhat lower rank than those of male working respondents, but the difference is not great.

Taking the working respondents as a whole, only 18.8 per cent of them are professional, technical, administrative, or managerial workers. Nearly half (45.2 per cent) of them are production and related labourers. In general, our working respondents are in middle to low occupational groups. Table 5.3 shows the distribution of respondents by occupation. Comparing our sample with the working population in Hong Kong, they differ slightly in the proportion of people having occupation of lower ranks, for example, 45.2 per cent in our sample is production or related labourers and for the working population it is 43.3 per cent.

What our sample deviates much from the population falls in the categories including professional and administrative workers. Among those who are working, 18.8 per cent in our sample belong to such occupations while only 11.9 per cent are found in the working population. Moreover, only 5.9 per cent of our respondents are clerical and related workers, but in the working population, 14.6 per cent are in such occupations. Hence, the professional or administrative workers are over-represented in our sample, but the clerical and related workers are under-represented. As we can see from Table 5.3, the proportions in other occupation categories are not different much between our sample and the working population in Hong Kong.

**Table 5.3. Occupation of Respondents (in per cent)[a]**

| Occupation | Male | Female | Overall | 1986[b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Professional, Technical and Related workers | 6.4<br>(7.5) | 2.7<br>(8.7) | 4.5<br>(7.9) | 8.3 |
| Administrative and managerial workers | 10.8<br>(12.6) | 2.0<br>(6.4) | 6.3<br>(10.9) | 3.6 |
| Clerical and related workers | 5.1<br>(6.0) | 1.8<br>(5.8) | 3.4<br>(5.9) | 14.6 |
| Sales workers | 11.4<br>(13.3) | 2.7<br>(8.7) | 6.9<br>(12.0) | 11.7 |
| Service Workers | 11.7<br>(13.7) | 5.9<br>(19.1) | 8.8<br>(15.2) | 16.2 |
| Agricultural workers and fisherman | 1.7<br>(2.0) | 0.5<br>(1.7) | 1.1<br>(1.9) | 1.9 |
| Production and related workers, transport equipment operators and labourers | 37.9<br>(44.3) | 14.7<br>(47.4) | 26.0<br>(45.2) | 43.3 |
| Unclassifiable | 0.4<br>(0.4) | 0.7<br>(2.3) | 0.6<br>(1.0) | 0.4 |
| Not working | 14.2<br>(--) | 68.4<br>(--) | 42.0<br>(--) | --- |
| No answer | 0.4<br>(--) | 0.5<br>(--) | 0.5<br>(--) | --- |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0<br>(100.0) | 100.0 |
| (N) | (528) | (557) | (1085) | (2643273) |

[a] Percentages in bracket are calculated on the basis of working respondents only.
[b] This column reflects the overall pattern of working population in Hong Kong in 1986. (Source: Hong Kong 1986 By-Census: Main Report Vol. 1. Census and Statistics Department, Hong Kong).

## Household Structure

Concerning the household structure, an overwhelming portion (71.1 per cent) in our sample is of the unextended nuclear family type, that is, the repondent is living with spouse, and with or without children. An unextended nuclear family is defined as a family consisting of a husband

and wife with or without their unmarried children (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 1986). In 1986, the proportion of unextended families for the population in Hong Kong is 59.2 per cent (ibid.). Hence, the proportion in our sample is more than that in the whole population. From Table 5.4, we can also find that single-parent families constitute 7.8 per cent of total in the sample. However, no comparable figure for the 1986 population in Hong Kong is found in the 1986 By-Census, no comparison between our sample and the whole population can be made.

**Table 5.4. Household Structure**

| Types | N | % |
|---|---|---|
| Couple only | 2 | 0.2 |
| Couple and others*, no child | 6 | 0.6 |
| Couple with children only | 769 | 70.9 |
| Couple with children and others | 203 | 18.7 |
| Single couple and others, no child | 20 | 1.8 |
| Single parent with children only | 62 | 5.7 |
| Single parent with children and others | 23 | 2.1 |
| Total | 1085 | 100.0 |

* "others" may mean daughter-in-law, son-in-law, respondents or spouse's parents, respondent's siblings, other relatives or other people.
The detailed family structure is not our concern, and is too subtle to report here.

Income

In line with the characteristics of relatively low education and less prestigious occupations, over 64 per cent of the respondents report monthly family income under $6000 (in 1985 price), compared with 58.6 per cent for the population in Hong Kong. The median family income for our sample is $5191, which is slightly more than that of $5160 for the whole population. Table 5.5 shows the monthly family income distribution in our sample. The readers should be cautious that the income reported for the whole population is in 1986 price, while in our sample it is reported in

1985 price.

**Table 5.5. Monthly Family Income**

| Monthly Family Income (in 1985 price) | % | 1986[a] % |
|---|---|---|
| Under $2000 | 2.0 | 9.7 |
| $2000-$3999 | 25.6 | 25.4 |
| $4000-$5999 | 36.5 | 23.5 |
| $6000-$7999 | 17.8 | 14.4 |
| $8000-$14999 | 12.7 | 18.7 |
| $15000-$19999 | 3.3 | 3.7 |
| $20000 and over | 2.1 | 4.6 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| (N) | (1005)[b] | (1452576) |
| Median Income ($) | 5191 | 5160 |

[a] This column reflects the overall pattern of population in Hong Kong in 1986. (Source: Hong Kong 1986 By-Census: Main Report Vol. 1. Census and Statistics Department, Hong Kong). The readers should be cautious that the income reported in the 1986 By-Census is in 1986 price.

[b] Excluding those who did not give an answer to this question.

Housing

Over 58 per cent of our respondents are living in public housing estates. The 1986 By-Census reports that 40.8 per cent of the total population were living in public housing estates in 1986 (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 1986). Moreover, There are 2.4 per cent in our sample living in quarters of Home Ownership Scheme, compared with 4.1 per cent for the whole population. Hence, more people in our sample are living in public rental housing, but less of them are living in Home Ownership estates than the population in Hong Kong. Table 5.6 reports the types of housing our respondents living in.

**Table 5.6. Types of Living Quarters**

| Living Quarters | % |
|---|---|
| Public housing | 58.1 |
| Home Ownership Scheme | 2.4 |
| Temporary housing | 0.5 |
| Cottages | 2.2 |
| Squatter | 1.5 |
| Multi-storey private housing with lift | 25.6 |
| Multi-storey private housing without lift | 8.8 |
| Villa | 0.1 |
| Others | 0.8 |
| Total | 100.0 |
| (N) | (1085) |

Summary

The overall respondent profile gives a picture of lower class middle-aged people. Generally, over 60 per cent (see Table 5.1) of our respondents are aged between 40 and 54, and their median age is 47.1. In particular, mothers are relatively younger than fathers; 28.5 per cent of women are age below 40 compared with only 8.2 per cent of men. Furthermore, mothers have a median age of 44.2, which is younger than that of 49.6 for fathers. Primary education is the common education level attained by our respondents, and undoubtedly with such low educational qualifications they predominantly possess occupations of lower ranks (i.e. production and related labourers). These less favoured conditions have resulted in monthly family income of under $6000 (in 1985 price) for 64.1 per cent of families in our sample. The median monthly family income is $5191 and the amount is about the same as that of $5160 reported in the Hong Kong 1986 By-Census.

The lower class characteristics are further enhanced by the fact that 58.1 per cent of our respondents are living in public housing estates, and the proportion is more than its counterpart of the population in Hong Kong

(reported in 1986 By-Census). Moreover, an overwhelming 71.1 per cent of our respondents are in families of unextended nuclear type, and the percentage is higher than that for the population in Hong Kong (59.2 per cent). A small portion in our sample are single-parent families which amounts to only 7.8 per cent. Taking all together, our sample reflects a group of lowly educated middle-aged parents. Most of them are living with their spouse and children. Their lower class characteristics are represented by their occupations, family income, and types of living quarters.

A. *Life in General*

To identify respondents' life satisfaction, we have two levels of measure probing: (a) global satisfaction, and (b) domain satisfaction. There is only one question to ask respondents about their general satisfaction with their life. Table 6.1 shows the degree of global satisfaction expressed by the respondents, as well as gender difference in satisfaction with general life.

**Table 6.1. Life Satisfaction in General**

| | Satisfaction* (%) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Total | Mean | (N)** |
| Male | 2.7 | 10.5 | 14.8 | 57.4 | 14.6 | 100.0 | 3.7 | (514) |
| Female | 2.9 | 9.6 | 14.5 | 54.1 | 18.9 | 100.0 | 3.8 | (551) |
| Overall | 2.8 | 10.1 | 14.6 | 55.7 | 16.8 | 100.0 | 3.7 | (1065) |

* 1=Very dissatisfied; 2=Quite dissatisfied; 3=Fair; 4=Quite satisfied; 5=Very satisfied

** Excluding those who did not give an answer.

We can see from Table 6.1 that over 72 per cent of our respondents are either quite satisfied or very satisfied with their general life, and only about 13 per cent of them express dissatisfaction with life. Male and female respondents show only minor variation in their degree of satisfaction with life. On the average, males and females are about equally satisfied, for the mean score for males is 3.7 (out of 5, 1 being very dissatisfied and 5 being very satisfied), and females is 3.8. This argument is further supported by the difference of means test (i.e. T-test). The result shows that the two-tailed probability level for the difference between males and females amounts to 0.321. With such a high level of probability, we can conclude that there is

no significant difference in mean scores of global satisfaction between fathers and mothers in our sample. Our respondents are quite satisfied with their life in general, and whose mean satisfaction score is around 3.7 to 3.8.

Apart from the global measure of life satisfaction , there is another global indicator measuring happiness of the respondents. From Table 6.2, we know that about 64 per cent of respondents feel happy about their life, and about 11 per cent of them feel unhappy. Therefore, our respondents are basically happy about their life, with an average happiness score 3.6 (out of 5, 1 being very unhappy and 5 being very happy). Again, there is no difference between male and female in expressing degree of happiness about life. It is confirmed by the difference of means test that the two-tailed probability level for the difference between males and females amounts to 0.593. With such a high level of probability, we can conclude that there is no significant difference in mean scores of global happiness between fathers and mothers in our sample. Both sexes have the equal happiness score of 3.6, and the percentages of feeling happy and unhappy are about the same, approximately 64 per cent feeling either quite happy or very happy and 11 per cent feeling either quite unhappy or very unhappy.

**Table 6.2. Happiness about Life in General**

| | Happiness* (%) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Total | Mean | (N)** |
| Male | 3.8 | 7.0 | 25.0 | 54.0 | 10.2 | 100.0 | 3.6 | (520) |
| Female | 3.6 | 7.5 | 24.1 | 52.1 | 12.7 | 100.0 | 3.6 | (551) |
| Overall | 3.7 | 7.2 | 24.6 | 53.0 | 11.5 | 100.0 | 3.6 | (1071) |

* 1=Very unhappy; 2=Quite unhappy; 3=Fair; 4=Quite happy; 5=Very happy

** Excluding those who did not give an answer.

Combining the results of global satisfaction and happiness measures,

we then get a picture of a mass of satisfied and happy parents. Examining Table 6.1 and Table 6.2 together, however, we find that there are more respondents showing neutral feeling towards happiness (24.6 per cent) than towards satisfaction measure (14.6 per cent). Hence, in addition to the generally satisfied and happy life reflected, our respondents are less sensitive to evaluate their happiness than their satisfaction. Put it differently, degree of happiness may not be always directly proportional to the degree of satisfaction. The scene becomes more and more clear when we inspect Table 6.3.

**Table 6.3. Cross-classifying Happiness by Satisfaction**

| | Satisfaction | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Happiness | Dissatisfied | Fair | Satisfied |
| Unhappy | 70<br>(60.3)<br>[52.6] | 11<br>(9.5)<br>[7.2] | 35*<br>(30.2)**<br>[4.6]*** |
| Fair | 38<br>(15.0)<br>[28.6] | 96<br>(37.8)<br>[62.3] | 120<br>(47.2)<br>[15.6] |
| Happy | 25<br>(3.6)<br>[18.8] | 47<br>(6.9)<br>[30.5] | 613<br>(89.5)<br>[79.8] |
| Total (N=1055) | 133 | 154 | 768 |

* frequency count
** row percentage summing up to 100 per cent across the row
*** column percentage summing up to 100 per cent down the column

In Table 6.3, the category "unhappy" is a combination of the original options of "very unhappy" and "quite unhappy "; "happy" is a combination of "very happy" and "quite happy"; "dissatisfied" is a combination of "very dissatisfied" and "quite dissatisfied"; "satisfied" is a combination of "very

satisfied" and "quite satisfied". The chi-square value for the table is 456.2, which is significant beyond 0.0001 level. The gamma coefficient amounting to 0.78 shows a rather strong association between global satisfaction and happiness, which is significant beyond 0.0001 level.

As Table 6.3 shows, only about half (52.6 per cent) of the dissatisfied respondents simultaneously feel unhappy about life, and even nearly one-fifth (18.8 per cent) of them feel happy. On the other extreme, those who feel satisfied with life are predominantly (79.8 per cent) happy respondents, and only very few of them (4.6 per cent) are unhappy about their life.

Table 6.3 provides us with another angle to understand the relationship between satisfaction and happiness. About 60 per cent of the unhappy respondents are also dissatisfied with their life, but a notably portion of them (30.2 per cent) feel satisfied. On the other hand, nearly 90 per cent of the happy people are also the satisfied ones. People who take neutral position in satisfaction measure remain about two-third (62.3 per cent) to hold the same evaluation towards happiness. Nevertheless, only about one-third (37.8 per cent) of people who are neither happy nor unhappy express the same neutral perception towards satisfaction with general life, and more of them (47.2 per cent) indicate having a satisfactory life. In general, we may conclude that happy people tend strongly to perceive a satisfactory life and vice versa. On the other hand, dissatisfied people also feel unhappy, however, the tendency is not so strong. The reverse is also true, but happiness measure provokes less sensitive responses than satisfaction measure. Be the respondents happy, unhappy, or with a neutral feeling, a considerable portion of them (ranging from 30.2 to 89.5 per cent) perceive a satisfactory life.

Summary

With regard to the two global measures of satisfaction and happiness, the majority of our respondents bend to positive end of ratings. Over 72 per cent of them express satisfaction with their life in general, and nearly two-thirds of them feel happy about their life. Hence, the respondents may be regarded as satisfied and happy parents. And in average, fathers and mothers do not show significant difference in their degrees of global life satisfaction and happiness.

In addition, measure of global happiness provokes less sensitive response than satisfaction. About a quarter of our respondents cannot give explicit feeling to either ends, compared with only about 15 per cent for global satisfaction measure. Satisfaction and happiness do not always go in the same direction. In particular, nearly one-fifth of dissatisfied respondents feel happy and only about half of them feel unhappy about life. On the other hand, nearly one-third of unhappy respondents express satisfaction with general life, and only about 60 per cent of them are dissatisfied ones. The findings suggest that dissatisfaction does not always lead to unhappy life, and the reverse is also true that unhappy life does not always have dissatisfaction as companion.

On the contrary, positive ratings on satisfaction and happiness are usually in pairs. About 80 per cent of satisfied parents are also happy ones, and nearly 90 per cent of happy parents simultaneously feel satisfied with life in general. These two pieces of information give evidence that satisfaction and happiness are not measures of the same kind, and the inclusion of both measures in this study is then proved to be necessary. Put it more specific, the positive dimension of both measures can be used interchangeably. However, feeling either dissatisfied or unhappy is not

always the synonym for one another.

B. *Evaluation of Life Domains*

In addition to the perception of global well-being, respondents have also evaluated 22 specific life domains. Among the life domains, 17 of them are rated on a 5-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale, with 1 being very dissatisfied and 5 being very satisfied. The remaining 5 domains are rated according to a good-bad continuum. Four of which are concerned with relations to parents, siblings, friends, and neighbours, and a 5-point scale (1 being very bad, 5 being very good) is adopted. The last one domain refers to the self-assessed health, with simply a 3-point bad-fair-good scale to rate. Except the self-assessed health, the mean evaluation scores are 3.0 or above, which imply that our respondents in average do not perceive negatively towards their specific experiences of life. Table 6.4 and Table 6.5 give the distributions and means of the responses from our respondents.

Family and Kinship

By comparing the mean scores on various domains, the highest ones mainly involve aspects of family and human relations. Out of the 12 domains which have received mean scores 3.8 or higher, with the exception of satisfaction with the living district and the mass media, most fit in the areas concerning family or human relations. These 12 highest scoring domains include, in descending order of mean scores: relation to spouse (4.1), relation to parents (4.1), relation to children (4.0), radio (4.0), interaction with other people (3.9), relation to siblings (3.9), relation to

## Table 6.4. Satisfaction with Various Life Domains

| Domains (N)** | Satisfaction* (%) 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job (678) | 2.5 | 13.7 | 24.6 | 49.0 | 10.2 | 3.5 |
| Income (685) | 7.0 | 28.8 | 25.4 | 34.4 | 4.4 | 3.0 |
| Living-quarter (1059) | 6.3 | 17.4 | 12.3 | 48.2 | 15.8 | 3.5 |
| Living-building (1015) | 5.1 | 14.6 | 13.1 | 53.3 | 13.9 | 3.6 |
| Living-district (1058) | 1.5 | 7.9 | 11.1 | 58.5 | 21.0 | 3.9 |
| Television (1002) | 0.9 | 6.5 | 14.9 | 63.6 | 14.1 | 3.8 |
| Radio (680) | 0.9 | 2.6 | 11.8 | 69.6 | 15.1 | 4.0 |
| Newspapers (818) | 0.5 | 3.2 | 13.3 | 69.1 | 13.9 | 3.9 |
| Magazines (296) | 1.0 | 13.2 | 27.7 | 50.0 | 8.1 | 3.5 |
| Family life (1051) | 1.7 | 7.1 | 18.7 | 53.3 | 19.2 | 3.8 |
| Relation to children (1051) | 0.7 | 2.7 | 13.3 | 58.8 | 24.5 | 4.0 |
| Relation to spouse (971) | 0.5 | 3.2 | 12.0 | 57.5 | 26.8 | 4.1 |
| Entertainment (1002) | 5.2 | 15.0 | 14.7 | 50.1 | 15.1 | 3.5 |
| Government (863) | 6.4 | 20.3 | 23.4 | 44.1 | 5.8 | 3.2 |
| District Boards or Urban Council (652) | 5.2 | 14.9 | 20.9 | 51.5 | 7.5 | 3.4 |
| Interaction with other people (1021) | 1.5 | 3.9 | 12.9 | 66.5 | 15.2 | 3.9 |
| Current achievement (973) | 8.2 | 27.7 | 18.1 | 39.5 | 6.5 | 3.1 |

* 1=Very dissatisfied; 2=Quite dissatisfied; 3=Fair; 4=Quite satisfied; 5=Very satisfied

** Excluding those who did not give an answer, or to whom the domain was not applicable.

## Table 6.5. Evaluation of Human Relations and Health

| Domains (N)** | Evaluation* (%) 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Relation to parents (664) | 0.6 | 3.3 | 14.0 | 48.8 | 33.3 | 4.1 |
| Relation to siblings (927) | 0.9 | 3.5 | 22.0 | 50.4 | 23.2 | 3.9 |
| Relation to friends (1060) | 0.1 | 1.5 | 20.6 | 60.7 | 17.1 | 3.9 |
| Relation to neighbours (1038) | 0.1 | 3.8 | 25.5 | 55.5 | 15.1 | 3.8 |
| Health*** (1083) | 28.8 | 6.3 | 64.9 | | | 2.4 |

* 1=Very bad; 2=Quite bad; 3=Fair; 4=Quite good; 5=Very good

** Excluding those who did not give an answer, or to whom the domain was not applicable.

*** Answer based on a 3-point scale : 1=Bad; 2=Fair; 3=Good.

friends (3.9), newspaper (3.9), living district (3.9), family life (3.8), television (3.8), and relation to neighbours (3.8).

The eight domains that deal with family or human relations can be classified into three levels of personal intimacy. The most intimate level includes domains of satisfaction with relations to spouse and children, and family life. The mean satisfaction scores (Table 6.4) of these domains are 4.1, 4.0 and 3.8 (1 being very dissatisfied and 5 being very satisfied) respectively. The second level refers to the less intimate kinship consisting of relations to parents and siblings, and the corresponding mean scores are 4.1 and 3.9 (Table 6.5; 1 being very bad and 5 being very good). The third level which is the least intimate involves satisfaction with interaction with other people (Table 6.4) and perception of relations to friends and neighbours (Table 6.5). The domain of interaction with other people has a mean satisfaction score 3.9, and the mean good-bad scores for the latter two domains are 3.9 (relation to friends) and 3.8 (relation to neighbours) respectively.

Entertainment and Mass Media

Apart from clustering in aspects of family and human relations, another set of highest mean scores are found in cluster of satisfaction with the information or entertainment obtained from various types of mass media including radio, newspapers, and television, with mean scores of 4.0, 3.9 and 3.8 respectively. Nevertheless, the number of respondents who have given answers to these three domains are in exactly the reverse order. Radio has the least number of people responding to (680 out of 1085; i.e. 62.7 per cent), then newspapers follows (818; 75.4 per cent), and television has the most (1002; 92.4 per cent).

We do not have evidence in the order of popularity of mass media

contact by the respondents. But we can guess from the order of number of responses given to various media. Since television has received the most responses among the three, we may treat it as the most popular medium that people will contact. Being a more popular medium may invite more chances to be criticized by the audience and hence it will lower the average degree of satisfaction with television in our sample. Alternatively, perhaps the low degree of satisfaction expressed by our respondents reflects the unsatisfactory qualities of television programmes. We can see from Table 6.5 that 7.4 per cent of respondents explicitly feel dissatisfaction with television, and this percentage is the highest among the three (3.7 per cent for newspaper and 3.5 per cent for radio). On the other hand, the highest mean score as appears in radio may result from the fact that for those who are dissatisfied with radio may have abandoned to listen to it. Hence, the ones responding to this evaluation are presumably the satisfied radio listeners. If it is true, the high level of satisfaction with radio reflected by our respondents is not surprising. However, we need more detailed information and evidence concerning media habits and evaluation of specific media contents that the above guesses can be justified.

Alternatively, we may see how respondents experience differently in satisfaction with the three types of media by focusing on another piece of information. We have analyzed the responses given by our respondents who have evaluated all the three mass media. The result does not show any pattern different from the former analysis that worth attention. In this latter analysis, the mean scores for television, newspaper and radio are 3.8, 3.9 and 3.9 respectively. The detailed percentage distributions on the rating scale do not deviate much from the former analysis.[1] Television still receives the lowest mean score among the three while the mean score for

radio drops 0.1 and becomes equal to the mean score for newspaper.

The above analysis cannot show clearly that with which area, information or entertainment, or the two, respondents feel satisfaction towards the mass media. However, there is evidence that mass media are not the only source of entertainment to our respondent. Only 65.2 per cent of our respondents answer definitely that they are either quite satisfied or very satisfied with their own entertainment, and the percentage is much less than any of the mass media (ranging from 77.7 per cent to 84.1 per cent). The mean satisfaction score for this domain is only 3.5, which is also less than any of the mass media. On the other hand, about one-fifth (20.2 per cent) of our respondents explicitly feel dissatisfied with their own entertainment. The amount is far more than that with the mass media (the highest is 7.4 per cent for television). We have no further information to explain such a high percentage of dissatisfaction.

We can conclude that satisfaction with information or entertainment obtained from the mass media cannot simultaneously bring about satisfaction with general entertainment to the same extent. Another piece of information can further support this argument. The product moment correlation between general entertainment and newspaper is as low as 0.081, 0.057 between entertainment and newspaper, 0.081 between entertainment and radio, and all the correlations are significant at the 0.05 level.

Income and Achievement

On the other extreme, the lowest satisfaction scores appear in domains that are also very personal. First, the average response for the evaluation of income is just "fair" (i.e. mean score of 3 in a 5-point scale). This implies that respondents are not satisfied with their personal income.

More specifically, less than 40 per cent (38.8 per cent) of the respondents are quite satisfied or very satisfied with their income, and about equal percentage (35.8 per cent) of them are quite or very dissatisfied with their income. On the other hand, the next to lowest mean score, 3.1, is found in the domain concerning satisfaction with current personal achievement. The mean score of 3.1 simply indicates that our respondents are not obviously on a satisfactory position with regard to their current achievement. Compared with personal income, however, the current achievement domain is a more distinguishable measure. It is evident from Table 6.4 that the income domain provokes a quarter (25.4 per cent) in our sample to show exactly a neutral position, while there is only 18.1 per cent of respondents holding the same position when responding to current achievement. More people (46 per cent) are inclined to give positive evaluation to current achievement than to personal income (38.8 per cent), but the amount of negative response is about the same for the two domains (35.9 per cent for current achievement, 35.8 per cent for income).

Environment

One interesting phenomenon is found in the satisfaction ratings on the different levels of physical living environment, i.e. living quarter, building , and district. Among the three, our respondents are least satisfied with their living quarters, and the mean score is 3.5. Then, the evaluation of the living building follows with a mean satisfaction score of 3.6. The highest mean score, 3.9, appears in satisfaction with the living district. The difference in mean scores depicts that our respondents become less satisfied with relatively more immediate living space. In particular, the percentage of dissatisfaction rises from 9.4 per cent to 19.7 per cent, and finally to 23.7 per cent, as moving along the living space continuum of

immediacy, that is, from the living district (the least immediate), to the living quarter (the most immediate). Table 6.6 gives some hints to explain the phenomenon.

**Table 6.6. Satisfaction with Different Items about Living Quarters**

| Items (N)* | Satisfaction (%) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Dissatisfied | Fair | Satisfied | Total |
| Sound Insulation (989) | 40.5 | 18.0 | 41.5 | 100.0 |
| Area (1072) | 37.1 | 18.2 | 44.7 | 100.0 |
| Toilet/Bathroom/ Kitchen (1032) | 27.2 | 17.7 | 55.1 | 100.0 |
| Ventilation (1077) | 17.1 | 15.1 | 67.8 | 100.0 |
| Partition (778) | 17.0 | 24.0 | 59.0 | 100.0 |
| Lighting (1074) | 15.5 | 13.5 | 70.9 | 100.0 |

* Excluding those who did not give an answer, or to whom the domain was not applicable.

We know from Table 6.6 that people are mostly dissatisfied with the sound insulation, and the area of their living quarters. There are 40.5 per cent of respondents expressing dissatisfaction with sound insulation, and with area it is 37.1 per cent. Although the third most dissatisfactory item (Toilet/Bathroom/Kitchen) yields negative evaluation up to 27.2 per cent, it is too ambiguous to identify exactly what the respondents are dissatisfied with. To be dissatisfied with sound insulation implies that the respondents are annoyed with noise problem. Such disturbing problem is self-evident in the findings when asking respondents to evaluate nine factors with reference to their living district.[2]

Among the feelings of dissatisfaction towards the nine factors, noise

pollution and population density rank first and second respectively. 35.5 per cent of respondents are dissatisfied with noise pollution, while 31.9 per cent of them evaluate negatively towards population density in their living district. The response to population density is in line with dissatisfaction with total area of living quarter. Recalling from Table 5.6, over half (58.1 per cent) of our respondents are living in public housing estates. Permanent repartitioning inside quarters in public housing is impossible, and the quarters are built in a densely packed fashion. Then, noise disturbance and dense population problem are most annoying to the respondents. As a result, the living quarter as a whole receives the average evaluation as less than satisfactory with a mean score of 3.5. In such a tiny but densely populated place as Hong Kong, low evaluation by respondents towards various levels of living environment should not surprise us.

Summary

In addition to the measures of global life satisfaction and happiness, our respondents have also evaluated 22 specific domains of life. The first 17 domains ask the respondents to express degree of satisfaction rated on a 5-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale. The evaluations of the remaining 5 domains are based on a 5-point bad-good continuum, with the exception of the self-assessed health (simply a 3-point bad-fair-good scale is used).

Except the self-assessed health, the mean evaluation scores are 3.0 or above, which imply that our respondents in average do not perceive negatively towards their specific experiences of life. Among the 12 highest scoring domains which receive a mean score of 3.8 of above, 8 of them involve aspects of family and human relations. These 8 domains can be further classified into three levels in terms of degree of personal intimacy. The most intimate level consists of satisfaction with family life (mean score

3.8), satisfaction with relation to children (4.0), and to spouse (4.1). The second level refers to less immediate kinship involving evaluation of relation to siblings (3.9), and to parents (4.1). The third level which is the least intimate involves perceived relation to neighbours (3.8), to friends (3.9), and satisfaction with interaction with other people (3.9).

The remaining 4 highest scoring domains fall into the mass media, except that satisfaction with living district (mean score of 3.9). The mass media includes television, newspaper and radio, with mean satisfaction scores of 3.8, 3.9, 4.0 respectively. Put it simply, the highest satisfaction of the respondents are found in domains which are either personal-relational or informational (i.e. the mass media) in nature.

At the other extreme, our respondents express lowest satisfaction with domains including personal income and current achievement, which in some sense are also personal in nature. The mean satisfaction score for current achievement is 3.1, and for personal income is just 3.0. These scores simply indicate that our respondents are not explicitly satisfied with the two domains, but they do not reach the extent of dissatisfaction.

With regard to the environment, our respondents are least satisfied with the most immediate living space, but are most satisfied with the least immediate living space. The mean satisfaction scores with the living quarter, living building, and living district are 3.5, 3.6 and 3.9 respectively. This can be explained by the fact that our respondents are mostly dissatisfied with sound insulation and area of their living quarters. There are 40.5 per cent of respondents expressing dissatisfaction with sound insulation, and with area it is 37.1 per cent. Nearly 60 per cent of our respondents are living in public housing estates. In such living quarters, permanent partitioning is impossible, and the space available to the

occupants is far from sufficient. Hence, it is not surprising that our respondents are least satisfied with the most immediate living quarters among the evaluation of different aspects of living environment.

C. *Bivariate Relationships*

The evaluation of life as a whole has found to be appropriately predicted by a linear combination of feelings towards different specific life domains. Before we proceed to adopt such a strategy for modeling perceived well-being in our sample, the analysis of bivariate relationships between global and domain specific measures is also informative. Table 6.7 summarizes the correlations between two global measures (i.e. general life satisfaction and happiness) and twenty-two specific life domains.

As shown in Table 6.7, only satisfaction with magazines is not significantly correlated with global satisfaction at the 0.05 level. The same is also applied to its correlation with global happiness. Two other domains also show insignificant correlation with global happiness at the 0.05 level. Both of them are concerned with evaluating mass media, including television and radio. The latter domain shows a negative correlation with global happiness, and which is the only one out of the forty-four correlations presented in Table 6.7. Comparing the magnitudes of the two sets of correlations in Table 6.7, 7 out of 22 domains record stronger correlation with global happiness than with satisfaction. These seven domains include income, relation to parents, relation to siblings, relation to neighbours, government, District Boards or Urban Council, and self-assessed health. While global satisfaction shows stronger correlations with a

**Table 6.7. Correlation[1] Between Life in General and Various Domains of life**

| Domains | Life in General | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Satisfaction | (N) | Happiness | (N) |
| Job | 0.328 | (671) | 0.300 | (670) |
| Income | 0.337 | (678) | 0.339 | (680) |
| Living-quarter | 0.232 | (1043) | 0.221 | (1050) |
| Living-building | 0.192 | (1001) | 0.134 | (1006) |
| Living-district | 0.113 | (1043) | 0.100 | (1046) |
| Television | 0.112 | (990) | 0.029 | (993)[3] |
| Radio | 0.114 | (671)[2] | -0.005 | (674)[3] |
| Newspapers | 0.149 | (810) | 0.077 | (813)[2] |
| Magazines | 0.063 | (292)[3] | 0.014 | (296)[3] |
| Entertainment | 0.386 | (989) | 0.362 | (955) |
| Family life | 0.465 | (1036) | 0.421 | (1041) |
| Relation to children | 0.256 | (1037) | 0.183 | (1038) |
| Relation to spouse | 0.256 | (957) | 0.221 | (961) |
| Relation to parents | 0.094 | (655)[2] | 0.110 | (660)[2] |
| Relation to siblings | 0.131 | (1037) | 0.163 | (919) |
| Relation to friends | 0.212 | (912) | 0.162 | (1047) |
| Relation to neighbours | 0.139 | (1022) | 0.164 | (1026) |
| Interaction with other people | 0.264 | (1004) | 0.214 | (1010) |
| Government | 0.198 | (852) | 0.222 | (855) |
| District Boards or Urban Council | 0.085 | (645)[2] | 0.154 | (648) |
| Current achievement | 0.427 | (961) | 0.350 | (966) |
| Health | 0.186 | (1064) | 0.236 | (1070) |

1. All Pearson r's are significant at $p < 0.001$ unless otherwise stated.
2. Pearson r significant at $p < 0.05$.
3. Correlation not significant at $p = 0.05$.

majority of the domains, the phenomenon is not out of our expectation. In 17 domains evaluation, the respondents are required to rate their feelings on a 5-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale, and such a scale is also used for the measure of global life satisfaction. Hence, the common method effect may amplify the magnitude of correlations. Recalling that seven domains have stronger correlation with global happiness than with global satisfaction, 4 of them are not rated on the dissatisfied-satisfied scale. Three of them (i.e., relation to parents, siblings, and neighbours) are rated on a 5-point good-bad scale, and the self-assessed health simply has only three response

categories (good, fair, bad).[3]

The bivariate analysis, as expected, shows rather weak correlations between global measures and domain specific measures. Only five of the correlations between domains and global satisfaction have reached a magnitude of 0.3 or above. Global satisfaction has the strongest correlation with family life (Pearson's r=0.465). Recalling from the univariate findings in the previous section, family life is one of the domains receiving highest mean satisfaction scores. These two pieces of information together depict that our respondents are highly satisfied with their family life, which in turn contributes to the personal global life satisfaction. However, it is far from having enough support to draw a final conclusion on this argument. The picture will become more explicit when we proceed to multivariate analysis.

The other four domains that are correlated with global satisfaction with a magnitude of above 0.3 are highly personal in nature. These domains include satisfaction with current achievement (r=0.427), entertainment (0.386), income (r=0.337), and job (r=0.328). The finding seems to suggest that general life satisfaction is heavily affected by the level of satisfaction with personal domains.

Similar comments with regard to the bivariate relationships between specific domains and global satisfaction also apply to global happiness. Correlation between family life and global happiness (0.421) is still the strongest among the specific domains. Entertainment (r=0.362), current achievement (r=0.350), income (r=0.339), and job (r=0.300) are the only other domains with correlations of 0.3 or above.

The two sets of correlations show a similar pattern. Such similarity suggests that global measures are significantly and considerably related to some specific life domains which are personal in nature. In particular,

family life is correlated with the global measures at the highest level among other domains. This can partly be explained by the fact that almost all of our respondents are living with their spouse and school-age children. Hence, family life is no doubt the most familiar event in their daily life experiences. Family provides the respondents with an important context in which events occurred are most correlated with the sense of parental well-being. This is further illustrated by an additional piece of information concerning the most frequent type of worry that our respondents have.[4] Among the respondents that report having worry, 25 per cent of them state that they are most frequently worried about their family. Another 14.7 per cent are most frequently worried about their children's academic matters. These two items rank the first and second among other worries mentioned by our respondents. The most worrying events to our respondents cluster in the domain of family, and the evaluation of such domain at the same time shows the strongest correlations with the measures of global life satisfaction and happiness. Given the marital and parental characteristics of our respondents, such coincidence is not a surprising result.

Because the most related domains are either personal in nature or concerned with family life, one may suspect different results will be found when the bivariate relationships are further broken down by sex. However, Table 6.8 and Table 6.9 tell us that there is not much variation in the subgroups of males and females. In the male subgroup, only five life domains, which are the same as those for the whole sample, are correlated with global life satisfaction with a magnitude of 0.3 and over. These five domains include family life, current achievement, income, entertainment, and job. The situation is almost the same in the female subgroup, with the exception that income shows a magnitude of correlation below 0.3, and

interaction with others rises to a level of correlation above 0.3.

For correlations of life domains with global happiness in the male subgroup, only three domains maintain a magnitude of 0.3 and above. These domains include family life, income, and current achievement, which can also be found in the case for the whole sample. In the female subgroup, five domains have correlations with global happiness with a magnitude of 0.3 or above. These domains include family life, entertainment, current achievement, job, and relation to spouse. Only the last domain is not found in the case for the whole sample.

**Table 6.8. Correlation[1] Between Global Satisfaction and Various Domains by Sex**

| | Global Satisfaction | |
|---|---|---|
| Domains | Male (N) | Female (N) |
| Job | 0.309 (424) | 0.360 (247) |
| Income | 0.387 (429) | 0.250 (249) |
| Living-quarter | 0.283 (502) | 0.184 (541) |
| Living-building | 0.195 (478) | 0.191 (523) |
| Living-district | 0.131 (506)[2] | 0.100 (537)[3] |
| Television | 0.179 (488) | 0.076 (502)[4] |
| Radio | 0.109 (321)[3] | 0.110 (350)[3] |
| Newspapers | 0.138 (440)[2] | 0.174 (370) |
| Magazines | 0.072 (133)[4] | 0.061 (159)[4] |
| Entertainment | 0.330 (475) | 0.436 (514) |
| Family Life | 0.495 (500) | 0.440 (536) |
| Relation to children | 0.255 (501) | 0.260 (536) |
| Relation to spouse | 0.230 (475) | 0.301 (482) |
| Relation to parents | 0.042 (283)[4] | 0.131 (372)[2] |
| Relation to siblings | 0.083 (428)[4] | 0.167 (484) |
| Relation to friends | 0.164 (502) | 0.252 (540) |
| Relation to neighbours | 0.129 (494)[2] | 0.174 (528) |
| Interaction with other people | 0.217 (494) | 0.308 (510) |
| Government | 0.221 (460) | 0.177 (392) |
| District Boards or Urban Council | 0.108 (341)[3] | 0.042 (304)[4] |
| Current Achievement | 0.469 (484) | 0.383 (477) |
| Health | 0.163 (514) | 0.216 (550) |

1. All Pearson r's are significant at $p < 0.001$ unless otherwise stated.
2. Pearson r significant at $p < 0.01$.
3. Pearson r significant at $p < 0.05$.
4. Correlation not significant at $p = 0.05$.

**Table 6.9. Correlation[1] Between Global Happiness and Various Domains by Sex**

| Domains | Global Happiness | |
|---|---|---|
| | Male (N) | Female (N) |
| Job | 0.288 (424) | 0.316 (246) |
| Income | 0.395 (431) | 0.240 (249) |
| Living-quarter | 0.216 (509) | 0.225 (541) |
| Living-building | 0.120 (482)[2] | 0.149 (524) |
| Living-district | 0.071 (510)[4] | 0.130 (536)[2] |
| Television | 0.071 (492)[4] | 0.013 (501)[4] |
| Radio | -0.019 (324)[4] | 0.002 (350)[4] |
| Newspapers | 0.078 (442)[4] | 0.087 (371)[4] |
| Magazines | 0.020 (136)[4] | 0.012 (160)[4] |
| Entertainment | 0.290 (479) | 0.428 (516) |
| Family Life | 0.415 (505) | 0.428 (536) |
| Relation to children | 0.220 (504) | 0.151 (534) |
| Relation to spouse | 0.146 (479) | 0.306 (482) |
| Relation to parents | 0.070 (289)[4] | 0.139 (371)[2] |
| Relation to siblings | 0.096 (435)[3] | 0.221 (484) |
| Relation to friends | 0.125 (507)[2] | 0.194 (540) |
| Relation to neighbours | 0.160 (499) | 0.167 (527) |
| Interaction with other people | 0.156 (500) | 0.271 (510) |
| Government | 0.268 (464) | 0.169 (391) |
| District Boards or Urban Council | 0.191 (343) | 0.096 (305)[4] |
| Current achievement | 0.352 (488) | 0.350 (478) |
| Health | 0.223 (520) | 0.256 (550) |

1. All Pearson r's are significant at $p < 0.001$ unless otherwise stated.
2. Pearson r significant at $p < 0.01$.
3. Pearson r significant at $p < 0.05$.
4. Correlation not significant at $p = 0.05$.

## Summary

The general picture of bivariate relationships shows rather weak positive correlations between global and domain specific measures. For global satisfaction, only five domains have a product-moment correlation with it over 0.3 in magnitude. These five domains are all concerned with satisfaction measure which include family life (r=0.465), current achievement (r=0.427), entertainment (r=0.386), income (r=0.337), and job (r= 0.328). They are domains of personal and immediate in nature.

The similar patterns are also found in male and female subgroups. For men, only the same 5 domains reach the strength of correlation of 0.3 or above. For women, income fails to continue to maintain a magnitude of correlation with global satisfaction of 0.3, and 2 more domains, relation to spouse and interaction with other people, join the list. The order of strength for women is: family life, entertainment, current achievement, job, relation to spouse, and interaction with other people. While the pattern for male subgroup is identical to the pattern for the whole sample, the women in our sample behave somewhat differently. We can say that the major sources of global life satisfaction, for the whole sample as well as for men, stem from life domains that are personal and immediate in nature. For women, however, the major sources are concerned with not only personal, but also relational life domains.

On the other hand, the pattern of relationships for the whole sample between global happiness and domains of life resembles the pattern between global satisfaction and life domains. The same five domains, and only these five, have correlations over 0.3 in magnitude with global happiness. They also preserve the same order of strength as in the case of global satisfaction. When the sample is decomposed into subgroups of men and women, slightly different results are found. For men, only family life, income and current achievement continue to maintain correlation with global happiness over 0.3 in magnitude. Compared with their counterparts for global satisfaction, two fewer domains are found here. For women, family life, entertainment, current achievement, job, and relation to spouse attain a Pearson's r over 0.3 with global happiness. This pattern is more or less the same as that for the whole sample, with the replacement of income found in the whole sample by relation to spouse found here.

## Notes

1. The distribution of satisfaction ratings for television, newspaper, and radio to all of which our respondents have given answers is shown below:

| Domains | Satisfaction* (%) 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Total | Mean | (N) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| T. V. | 1.3 | 5.8 | 14.9 | 64.6 | 13.4 | 100.0 | 3.8 | (537) |
| Newspaper | 0.6 | 3.5 | 11.7 | 69.3 | 14.9 | 100.0 | 3.9 | (537) |
| Radio | 0.9 | 3.2 | 12.3 | 69.4 | 14.2 | 100.0 | 3.9 | (537) |

* 1=Very dissatisfied; 2=Quite dissatisfied; 3=Fair; 4=Quite satisfied; 5=Very satisfied

2. The degree of satisfaction with nine factors about living district is listed below. The original 5-point scale is reduced to 3 points for simplicity here.

| | Satisfaction* (%) 1 | 2 | 3 | Total | (N)** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Noise pollution | 35.5 | 16.9 | 40.6 | 100.0 | (1042) |
| Population density | 31.9 | 26.1 | 42.0 | 100.0 | (981) |
| Public order | 29.4 | 24.2 | 46.4 | 100.0 | (1036) |
| Entertainment facilities | 28.0 | 16.4 | 55.6 | 100.0 | (993) |
| Public facilities | 27.3 | 17.7 | 55.0 | 100.0 | (957) |
| Air freshness | 23.9 | 14.4 | 61.7 | 100.0 | (1053) |
| Hygiene | 22.6 | 23.8 | 53.6 | 100.0 | (1029) |
| Environment | 15.7 | 28.5 | 55.8 | 100.0 | (1034) |
| Transportation | 12.6 | 7.1 | 80.3 | 100.0 | (1073) |

* 1=dissatisfied; 2=fair; 3=satisfied

** Excluding those who did not give answer.

3. Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) has also discussed the "method factors". To quote their words, "some of the strength of the correlations among the items can probably be attributed to a 'method factor'; all eight items were similar in format, and there may be a tendency to use particular points on a scale regardless of the content of the questions" (p.47, note 9).

4. The following table gives the proportion of matters most worried by our respondents. 739 respondents have worried about one of the items listed below, and this figure becomes the base number to calculate the percentages in bracket. Percentages not add up to 100 is due to rounding error.

| Types of worries | % | % |
|---|---|---|
| Family | 17.1 | (25.0) |
| Children's academic matters | 10.0 | (14.7) |
| Work | 7.6 | (11.1) |
| Money matters | 6.6 | (9.7) |
| HK's future | 5.4 | (8.0) |
| Public order | 4.1 | (6.1) |
| Health | 4.0 | (5.8) |
| Housing | 1.8 | (2.7) |
| Personal future | 1.6 | (2.3) |
| Economy | 0.6 | (0.9) |
| Others | 9.2 | (13.5) |
| No worry | 31.9 | -- |
| Total | 99.9 | (99.8) |
| (N) | (1085) | (739) |

# VII. PREDICTION OF GLOBAL WELL-BEING

The bivariate relationships presented in the previous section do not, in strict sense, imply life domains carry causal effects on global sense of well-being. However, guided by our theoretical framework which is derived from the previous work on perceived well-being, it is our intention to find an appropriate model to predict how our respondents evaluate their own sense of well-being. The pioneering work (e.g., Andrews and Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976) on this research area has suggested that a linear additive statistical model involving components of life domains evaluation is effective in predicting the summary evaluation of life in general. Hence, we adopt the technique of stepwise multiple regression to try to find out the determinants of global life satisfaction and happiness in our sample.

Of the 22 specific domains reported in Tables 6.5 and 6.6, only 18 of them are included in the stepwise regression analysis. The main reason for dropping four life domains is that a substantial portion of respondents have not given their evaluation on these domains. The leftout domains involve evaluation of radio (with only 62.7 per cent valid response from the whole sample), relation to parents (61.2 per cent), District Boards or Urban Council (60.1 per cent), and the least, magazines (27.3 per cent only). If these domains are included in regression analysis, it will cause problems for handling the missing cases. Two common techniques for handling missing data are widely employed in the field of linear regression analysis. One method is listwise deletion of cases when a missing response is found among the input variables. Another method is to substitute the missing

response by the mean value of that variable calculated from the whole sample. The inclusion of variables in which many cases have missing response will largely reduce the number of cases available for analysis if the listwise deletion method is employed. On the other hand, if the method of substitution by mean value is adopted, the results of analysis may be misleading if a considerable number of cases have been artificially assigned a mean value to variables with missing response. In order to avoid the problems, we decide to drop the four domains when we proceed to the multiple regression analysis.

A. *Prediction of Global Satisfaction*

With regard to the whole sample, only 16 out of 18 selected life domains are input to the regression analysis for predicting global satisfaction and happiness. At this first stage of analysis, we do not add satisfactions with job and income to the other 16 domains simply because of the problem of handling missing data mentioned above. Of the 1085 respondents in our sample, only 624 (57.5 per cent) report having a full-time job. The inclusion of satisfaction with job and income as predictors of global measures needs a subgroup analysis and the results will be discussed later. The results of stepwise multiple regression analysis with 16 domains as predictors of global life satisfaction is shown in Table 7.1.

**Table 7.1. Prediction of Global Life Satisfaction for Whole Sample**

(N=1085)[a]

| Predictor domains | R | $R^2$ | beta[b] | s.e.[c] beta | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Family life | 0.453 | 0.205 | 0.300 | 0.026 | 133.2*** |
| Current achievement | 0.404 | 0.163 | 0.247 | 0.026 | 91.8*** |
| Entertainment | 0.355 | 0.126 | 0.174 | 0.026 | 44.7*** |
| Interaction with other people | 0.250 | 0.063 | 0.123 | 0.025 | 24.1*** |
| Health | 0.184 | 0.033 | 0.080 | 0.025 | 10.4*** |
| Living quarter | 0.226 | 0.051 | 0.063 | 0.025 | 6.2** |
| Government | 0.173 | 0.030 | 0.052 | 0.025 | 4.3* |

*For whole equation*:

Multiple R = 0.606 Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.363

Standard error = 0.751 F = 89.1 ($p < 0.001$)

[a] Substitution by mean score is adopted to handle missing responses. This method applies also to the subsequent regression analysis and will not be restated subsequently.

[b] beta = standardized beta coefficient.

[c] s.e. beta = standard error of beta.

* $p < 0.05$ ; ** $p < 0.01$ ; *** $p < 0.001$

Among the 16 input domains, 7 of them are retained by the stepwise multiple regression analysis as the significant predictors of global satisfaction. The "beta" shown in Table 7.1 is the standardized one. This coefficient implies that keeping other variables constant in the equation, the number of units of standard deviation changed in the dependent variable (i.e. the global satisfaction in our case) brought about by 1 unit of standard deviation changed in the specific independent life domain. Accordingly, the relative strength of the effects imposed on global satisfaction by various life domains can be assessed through the comparisons of beta. The 7 significant predictors of global life satisfaction are all measured by the 5-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale, with the exception of the self-assessed health using the bad-fair-good scale. In terms of relative strength, these domains include family life (beta=0.300), current achievement (0.247), entertainment (0.174), interaction with other people (0.123), self-assessed

health (0.080), living quarter (0.063), and government (0.052). As a whole, the seven domains explain 36.3 per cent of the variance of the dependent global life satisfaction.

The results of predicting global life satisfaction for our sample are somewhat different to other surveys in the United States and some European countries. For example, Andrews and Withey (1976:127-128) find in a national sample of the United States that just six measures of specific life concern are sufficient to explain 50 per cent of the variance of feeling about life-as-a-whole (ours is 36.3 per cent). These six measures consist of self efficacy index, family index, money index, amount of fun, housing, and national government index. The common aspects of life found in both our case and Andrews and Withey's analysis include efficacy (consisting of one's achievement as the indicator), family, housing, and government. Each of the predicting indices in Andrews and Withey's case consists of multiple concern measures, but in our case, all predictors contain only single indicator for each. As a result, Andrew and Withey can explain more percentage of variation in the dependent variable than us, for more indicators are actually involved in the former case.

On the other hand, Davis and Fine-Davis (1991:301-305) have separately analyzed eight sets of data from European countries including Germany, France, Italy, Netherlands, Belgium, United Kingdom, Ireland, and Denmark. In general, 21 to 27 per cent of the variance in general life satisfaction can be explained by life domains, and in Belgium it is as high as 34 per cent. They conclude that five variables are most predictive of general life satisfaction in these countries. In their rough order of relative strength, the common predictors include: "(1) Satisfaction with Present State of Health, (2) Satisfaction with Housing, (3) Satisfaction with Neighbourhood,

(4) Marital Status, and (5) Self-Assessed Health" (p.301). In our case, only housing and self-assessed health are also commonly found in the European countries.

The different patterns shown in the samples in the United States, European countries, and Hong Kong may be due to several factors. First, the samples in the United States and European countries are intended to be representative of persons aged eighteen years or over living in their respective countries. But in our case, the sample is only drawn from parents that have secondary school-age children. Hence, the age composition in our case differs much from the others. Second, the input variables for the multiple regression analyses are not the same in the three cases. Omitting some variables actually prevents these variables from having a chance to be included in the regression analysis in order to emerge as significant predictors of global life satisfaction. Third, scales of measurement are different in the three cases. Andrews and Withey mainly use a 7-point delight-terrible scale to measure respondents' evaluation of life-as-a-whole. Davis and Fine-Davis use a 4-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale to measure respondents' satisfaction with general life and various life domains. We use a 5-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale to measure global life satisfaction and 17 domains of life, a 5-point good-bad scale to measure other four domains and also a 3-point scale to measure self-assessed health.[1] Nevertheless, the three cases suggest that the life domains including family life, housing, and health are the common significant predictors of global life evaluation. The centrality of these three predictors are also replicated in other studies (e.g. Bharadwaj and Wilkening, 1977; Michalos, 1980, 1982, 1983).

Hypothesis Testing Concerning Global Life Satisfaction

With regard to global life satisfaction, we have put forward the following two hypotheses:

(H1) Global life satisfaction is significantly predicted by satisfaction with the private and immediate life domains such as living unit, family life, entertainment, current achievement, relation to spouse, relation to children, and self-assessed health.

(H2) Other life domains that are public or distant to oneself, such as satisfaction with living district, government handling local affairs, interaction with others, and relations to people other than spouse and children, are not significant determinants of global satisfaction.

The results of stepwise multiple regression for the whole sample do not confirm our two hypotheses completely. From Table 7.1, we know that 7 out of 16 input life domains are found to be significant predictors of global satisfaction. Five of these domains suit our first hypothesis that family life, current achievement, entertainment, living quarter and self-assessed health are significant predictors, and which are personal and immediate in nature. Referring to the second hypothesis, results in Table 7.1 disapprove, at least partly, our expectation. Satisfaction with government, and interaction with others are found to be members of significant determinants. Hence, the second hypothesis that the public and distant life domains cannot significantly predict global satisfaction does not completely hold.

The significance of interaction with other people, however, can be interpreted differently. First, human beings are social animals to whom interacting with others is not only imperative but also in need of. Second,

the wording "interaction with other people" is actually ambiguous and anonymous in nature. We simply do not know with whom our respondents are satisfied to have interaction. Hence, we suggest that further research should state clear the subjects of interaction. If this more concrete information is available, we may expect that interactions with particular persons will become another significant dimension of life domain for predicting global life satisfaction. If the interactions with spouse, children, parents, siblings, neighbours, and friends are measured, such domains of interaction can also be classified as personal in nature. Accordingly, our input domains of relation to friends and neighbours may be the potential subjects for the domain of interaction with others. Here in our case, the scale used for responses is not the dissatisfied-satisfied scale, their potential ability in prediction has not emerged out yet. Discussion on the domain of interaction with other people suggests both a measurement as well as a theoretical problem for further research in this field. Only after obtaining empirical observations that we can comment on this in detail.

Our third and fourth hypotheses deal with the different patterns of predicting global life satisfaction shown separately by males and females. In line with the descriptions presented in Hypotheses 1 and 2, we have hypothesized more specifically that:

(H3) Among the significant predictors, satisfaction with job, income, living quarter, current achievement and health are relatively stronger predictors for men. These domains are material- or self-oriented in nature.

(H4) Satisfaction with family life, relations to spouse, children, neighbours and friends are the stronger predictors of global life satisfaction for women. These domains are family- or

relational-oriented in nature.

Tables 7.2 and 7.3 show the analysis results for men and women respectively. To test Hypotheses 3 and 4, satisfaction with job and income are added to the regression analysis summing up to 18 domains as input variables.

**Table 7.2. Prediction of Global Life Satisfaction for Men with Full-time Job**

(N=451)

| Predictor domains | R | $R^2$ | beta | s.e. beta | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Family life | 0.512 | 0.262 | 0.331 | 0.039 | 72.0*** |
| Current Achievement | 0.454 | 0.206 | 0.233 | 0.040 | 33.4*** |
| Income | 0.378 | 0.143 | 0.125 | 0.040 | 9.6** |
| Government | 0.218 | 0.048 | 0.120 | 0.037 | 10.6*** |
| Health | 0.205 | 0.042 | 0.093 | 0.036 | 6.6** |
| Living-quarter | 0.302 | 0.091 | 0.098 | 0.038 | 6.5** |
| Entertainment | 0.279 | 0.078 | 0.081 | 0.038 | 4.6* |
| Interaction with other people | 0.206 | 0.042 | 0.078 | 0.037 | 4.5* |

*For whole equation*:
Multiple R = 0.661 Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.426
Standard error = 0.704 F = 42.8 ($p < 0.001$)

* $p < 0.05$ ; ** $p < 0.01$ ; *** $p < 0.001$

**Table 7.3. Prediction of Global Life Satisfaction for Women with Full-time Job**

(N=173)

| Predictor domains | R | $R^2$ | beta | s.e. beta | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Family Life | 0.355 | 0.126 | 0.206 | 0.068 | 9.1** |
| Current Achievement | 0.375 | 0.141 | 0.206 | 0.067 | 9.3** |
| Interaction with other people | 0.297 | 0.088 | 0.204 | 0.066 | 9.5** |
| Job | 0.278 | 0.143 | 0.197 | 0.068 | 8.3** |
| Entertainment | 0.380 | 0.144 | 0.154 | 0.071 | 4.7* |

*For whole equation*:
Multiple R = 0.586 Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.324
Standard error = 0.787 F = 17.5 ($p < 0.001$)

* $p < 0.05$ ; ** $p < 0.01$

Comparing Table 7.1 and Table 7.2, the patterns are almost the same. All the seven significant predictors for the whole sample (Table 7.1) appear again in the male subgroup (Table 7.2), with only some variation in the order of strength to predict global satisfaction (in terms of magnitudes of standardized beta). The only difference is that satisfaction with income emerges as one of the determining factors in the male subgroup, and it ranks third among the eight domains. The eight domains are family life (beta=0.331), current achievement (0.233), income (0.125), government (0.120), living quarter (0.098), self-assessed health (0.093), entertainment (0.081), and interaction with others (0.078). These eight predictors as a whole can now explain 42.6 per cent of variation in global life satisfaction, and the percentage is higher than the 36.3 per cent of variation explained by seven domains for the whole sample.

The result for the female subgroup shows a slightly different pattern. Only five domains are significant and together they explain 32.4 per cent of variation in global life satisfaction for female. These five domains consist of family life (beta=0.206), current achievement (0.206), interaction with other people (0.204), job (0.197) and entertainment (0.154). The percentage of variance in global satisfaction explained by these five domains is the lowest among the cases in the whole sample and the two subgroups.

Satisfaction with family life, current achievement, entertainment, and interaction with other people are found in the whole sample as well as in the two subgroups. They may be called the "core" domains in predicting global life satisfaction. The order of strength of their effects on global satisfaction are roughly the same as listed. Because of the similarity presented in male and female subgroup, our Hypotheses 3 and 4 fail to be confirmed.

As satisfaction with job and with income behave differently in the male and female subgroups, it is our interest to see how they behave with other 16 life domains in a subgroup only consisting of all respondents having full time jobs. Table 7.4 shows that seven domains are significant and together explain 38.5 per cent of total variation in global life satisfaction. Comparing this result with that in Table 7.1, only little difference is found. While satisfaction with living quarter is found to be significant for the whole sample, it is replaced by satisfaction with income, which ranks fourth among other predictors, in the full-time working subgroup. The other six significant predictors are similar in both analyses, and the explanatory power of the two different combinations is approximately the same (36.3 per cent for whole sample and 38.5 per cent for full-time working subgroup).

**Table 7.4. Prediction of Global Life Satisfaction for Full-time Working Subgroup**

(N=624)

| Predictor domains | R | $R^2$ | beta | beta | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Family Life | 0.465 | 0.216 | 0.298 | 0.034 | 76.7*** |
| Current Achievement | 0.429 | 0.184 | 0.244 | 0.035 | 49.7*** |
| Entertainment | 0.307 | 0.094 | 0.107 | 0.034 | 10.0** |
| Income | 0.346 | 0.120 | 0.138 | 0.034 | 16.1*** |
| Health | 0.223 | 0.050 | 0.111 | 0.032 | 11.8*** |
| Interaction with other people | 0.235 | 0.055 | 0.112 | 0.033 | 11.9*** |
| Government | 0.201 | 0.040 | 0.087 | 0.032 | 7.3** |

*For whole equation*:

Multiple R = 0.626 Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.385

Standard error = 0.734 F = 56.8 ($p < 0.001$)

** $p < 0.01$ ; *** $p < 0.001$

Summary

To predict the general satisfaction for the whole sample, 16 domains of life are selected as input variables to the stepwise regression analysis. Results show that only 7 life domains are significant predictors of satisfaction with life in general. The significant predictors consist of, in order of decreasing predictive effect as illustrated by standardized beta, family life, current achievement, entertainment, interaction with other people, self-assessed health, living quarter, and government. Except the self-assessed health, all the domains are evaluated according to the dissatisfied-satisfied scale. All of the predictors, except satisfaction with the government, are concerned with personal and immediate domains. When the subgroup that all respondents have full time job is picked out for analysis, satisfaction with job and income are added to the list of input variables. The regression analysis for this subgroup shows almost the same pattern. Except satisfaction with living quarter, the other 6 significant predictors found in the whole sample remain the same in this case. Instead, satisfaction with income becomes one of the significant determinants.

When the working subgroup is further decomposed by sex, there is slight difference between men and women. For men, the result is just a combination of those for the whole sample and the working subgroup, summing up to 8 significant predictors of global life satisfaction. For women, there are only 5 domains found to be significant predictors, and four of them are also found in the whole sample, male subgroup, and working subgroup. These four domains may be called the "core" determinants of life satisfaction, which include satisfaction with family life, current achievement, entertainment, and interaction with other people. The remaining one significant predictor for women is satisfaction with job. In

brief, perception of life satisfaction is influenced by four "core" domains of life which are personal and immediate in nature. In addition, income is one of the sources from which men derive their life satisfaction, while alternatively, women derive their life satisfaction from the job itself, but not from income.

B. *Prediction of Global Happiness*

In the section discussing bivariate relationships, correlations between domains satisfaction and global happiness are usually in the same direction but weaker than those between domains and global satisfaction. It seems justifiable to set the hypotheses regarding prediction of global happiness in similar terms as we did for predicting global satisfaction. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

(H5) The percentage of total variation in global happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction.

(H6) Global happiness, like global satisfaction, is significantly predicted by satisfaction with the private and immediate life domains involving family life, entertainment, current achievement, relation to spouse, relation to children, self-assessed health, and living quarter.

The results of stepwise regression analysis for the whole sample, like the situation in predicting global satisfaction, do not come up completely to our expectation. Similar to the case in predicting global satisfaction, 16 domains are input to the regression analysis (again, excluding job and income). Table 7.5 shows 8 domains explain 30.8 per cent of variation in global happiness, and the percentage is less than that in global satisfaction (36.3 per cent). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is confirmed.

**Table 7.5. Prediction of Global Life Happiness for Whole Sample**

(N=1085)

| Predictor domains | R | $R^2$ | beta | s.e. beta | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Family Life | 0.408 | 0.166 | 0.269 | 0.027 | 96.9*** |
| Entertainment | 0.342 | 0.117 | 0.183 | 0.027 | 45.3*** |
| Current Achievement | 0.334 | 0.112 | 0.180 | 0.027 | 44.6*** |
| Health | 0.235 | 0.055 | 0.141 | 0.026 | 30.1*** |
| Government | 0.194 | 0.038 | 0.086 | 0.026 | 11.0*** |
| Interaction with other people | 0.204 | 0.042 | 0.084 | 0.026 | 10.3** |
| Living Quarter | 0.217 | 0.047 | 0.073 | 0.026 | 7.7** |
| Television | 0.027 | 0.0007 | -0.057 | 0.026 | 4.9* |

*For whole equation*:

Multiple R = 0.560 Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.308

Standard error = 0.756 F = 61.4 ($p < 0.001$)

** $p < 0.01$ ; *** $p < 0.001$

The eight significant predictors of global happiness include: family life (beta=0.269), entertainment (0.183), current achievement (0.180), self-assessed health (0.141), government (0.086), interaction with others (0.084), living quarter (0.073), and television (-0.057). With the exception of the television domain, the other 7 domains are the same as the ones predicting global satisfaction. Five of these domains are hypothesized originally as significant predictors of global happiness. Relations to children and spouse fail to emerge as significant predictors. As a result, Hypothesis 6 cannot be fully confirmed.

With regard to the male and female subgroups, two more domains, job and income, are added to the regression analysis on top of the 16 domains used in Hypothesis 6. We put forward the following two hypotheses:

(H7) Satisfaction with job, income, living quarter, current achievement and health are relatively stronger predictors for

men. The percentage of total variation in global happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction.

(H8) Domains concerning family life, relations to spouse, children, neighbours and friends are stronger predictors for women. The percentage of total variation in global happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction.

Tables 7.6 and 7.7 show the results of multiple regression analysis for the male and female subgroups respectively.

The seven significant predictors of global happiness for the male subgroup are almost the same as that of predicting global satisfaction, with the exception that the domain "interaction with others" becomes insignificant in this case. These seven predictors together can explain 35.9 per cent of total variation in global happiness, which is less than the 42.6 per cent of variation explained in global satisfaction. Hence, the latter part of Hypothesis 7 is confirmed. The seven predictors include: family life (beta=0.258), government (0.188), income (0.182), current achievement (0.166), entertainment (0.111), self-assessed health (0.094), and living quarter (0.080). Only income, current achievement, health, and living quarter are present in our original hypothesis. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 cannot be confirmed.

The seven significant domains found in the male subgroup are similar to those found in the whole sample, with the exception of the domain "income" which has not input to the whole sample for analysis.

**Table 7.6. Prediction of Global Life Happiness for Men with Full-time Job**

(N=451)

| Predictor domains | R | $R^2$ | beta | s.e. beta | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Family life | 0.436 | 0.190 | 0.258 | 0.041 | 39.2*** |
| Government | 0.278 | 0.077 | 0.188 | 0.039 | 23.6*** |
| Income | 0.387 | 0.150 | 0.182 | 0.043 | 18.2*** |
| Current achievement | 0.382 | 0.146 | 0.166 | 0.042 | 15.2*** |
| Entertainment | 0.287 | 0.082 | 0.111 | 0.040 | 7.7** |
| Health | 0.192 | 0.037 | 0.094 | 0.038 | 6.0* |
| Living-quarter | 0.267 | 0.071 | 0.080 | 0.041 | 3.9* |

*For whole equation*:

Multiple R = 0.608 Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.359

Standard error = 0.681 F = 37.1 ($p < 0.001$)

* $p < 0.05$ ; ** $p < 0.01$ ; *** $p < 0.001$

**Table 7.7. Prediction of Global Life Happiness for Women with Full-time Job**

(N=173)

| Predictor domains | R | $R^2$ | beta | s.e. beta | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Entertainment | 0.486 | 0.236 | 0.360 | 0.067 | 29.2*** |
| Family life | 0.351 | 0.123 | 0.194 | 0.067 | 8.4** |
| Current achievement | 0.324 | 0.105 | 0.141 | 0.067 | 4.4* |
| Television | -0.171 | 0.029 | -0.159 | 0.063 | 6.4** |
| Income | 0.296 | 0.088 | 0.147 | 0.065 | 5.0** |

*For whole equation*:

Multiple R = 0.599 Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.340

Standard error = 0.761 F = 18.7 ($p < 0.001$)

* $p < 0.05$ ; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

For the female subgroup, the predictors of global happiness subgroup are dissimilar with those in predicting global satisfaction. From Table 7.7, five domains are found to be significant in this case, and three of them, including satisfaction with entertainment (beta=0.360), family life (0.194), and current achievement (0.141) are the same predictors of global

satisfaction. The remaining two domains are satisfaction with income (0.147), and television (-0.159). Five domains together can explain 34 per cent of variation in global happiness, and the figure is slightly more than that in global satisfaction (32.4 per cent). The five predictors found in the female subgroup and the percentage of variation in global happiness explained by the predictors completely refute the Hypothesis 8.

It is worth mentioning here that satisfaction with television contributes negatively to global happiness in the whole sample as well as in the female subgroup. The negative effect of this domain is the only one found in all our regression analyses. We have no concrete information to explain such a strange phenomenon. Nevertheless, previous studies (Michalos 1980, 1982, 1983) have reported some negative effects of life domains on happiness. On the other hand, we have discussed in Chapter 6 that satisfaction and happiness are not measures of the same kind of feelings. We have also demonstrated that the two measures do not always go in the same direction. As a result, negative contribution of domain satisfaction to global happiness does not merely make sense in statistical terms. It may give further hints to explore the difference in the substantive meanings of satisfaction and happiness.

Summary

The global happiness is predicted by more or less the same set of domains as in the case of predicting global satisfaction. On top of the same 7 significant predictors of global satisfaction, degree of satisfaction with television becomes one of the determinants of global happiness. The 8 significant domains explain 30.8 per cent of total variation in global happiness, which is lower than global satisfaction explained by 7 domains (36.3 per cent). And this lower explanatory power for happiness is what we

expect.

For men with full time job, the predictors found are again similar to those of global satisfaction. With the exclusion of interaction with other people, the 7 significant predictors of global happiness are identical to what are found in predicting global satisfaction. The proportion of variation in happiness explained (35.9 per cent) is lower than that in global satisfaction (42.6 per cent). For working women, income and television plus three "core" domains including family life, current achievement and entertainment are the significant predictors of global happiness. Income and television are not found in predicting female satisfaction with life in general. These five domains can explain 34 per cent of variation in global happiness, and the proportion is slightly larger than that in global satisfaction (32.4 per cent).

In short, perception of parental happiness is influenced by more of less the same domains of life as in predicting global satisfaction. In addition to the "core" determining life domains, satisfaction with income is found in both the male and female subgroups as the significant predictor of global happiness.

C. *Structural Modeling*

Perceptions of satisfaction and happiness are some kinds of feeling that are subjective and internal to each person. All global measures and domain specific measures discussed so far are empirical indicators intending to tap these unobserved, internal feelings. On the other hand, our theoretical framework has assumed some forms of causation among the empirical indicators. Such causal models need to be testified for their

applicability to the real world. LISREL 7 (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1989) is a kind of structural modeling technique. It requires a prior specification of a system of causal directions within a structural model, and in that model, observed (e.g. our global and domain specific measures) and unobserved (e.g., perception of well-being) variables can be present simultaneously. In LISREL's terms, a measurement model refers to the relationships between empirical indicators (i.e. observed) and latent constructs, and a structural model deals with the relationships among latent constructs. We use LISREL to explore the dynamics involved in perceiving the sense of well-being from our respondents.

The application of LISREL computer program to examine perception of global well-being is first introduced by Andrews and Withey (1976), and McKennell and Andrews (1980). Since then, other researchers have been starting to apply LISREL to their study of people's subjective well-being, although the substantive elements included in their models differ from one another (e.g., Abbey and Andrews, 1986; Headey, Holmstrom and Wearing, 1985; Harley and Little, 1985; Vaughan *et al.*, 1985). McKennell and Andrews (1980: 261) recommend the use of the chi-square statistic calculated by LISREL to assess whether the data fit the proposed theoretical model. They write: "chi-square [calculated by the LISREL program] can be used as a qualitative or descriptive statistic for exploratory purposes. In comparing two models, the one with more fitted parameter and therefore fewer degrees of freedom, usually yields a smaller chi-square ..... This qualitative or descriptive use of chi-square can therefore serve as an aid in assessing the fit of a particular model in relation to alternatives."

Jöreskog and Sörborm (1989: 26) state that one should regard the chi-square statistic "as a goodness-of-fit (or badness-of-fit) measure in the sense

that large chi-square values correspond to bad fit and small chi-square values to good fit. The degrees of freedom serves as a standard by which to judge whether chi-square is large or small ..... If a value of chi-square is obtained that is large compared to the number of degrees of freedom, the fit may be examined and assessed by an inspection of the fitted residuals, the standardized residuals, and the modification indices. Often these quantities will suggest ways to relax the model by introducing more parameters. The new model usually yields a smaller chi-square. A large drop in chi-square, compared to the difference in degrees of freedom, indicates that the changes made in the model represent a real improvement. On the other hand, a drop in chi-square close to the difference in number of degrees of freedom indicates that the improvement in fit is obtained by `capitalizing on chance', and the added parameters may not have real significance and meaning."

We have proposed two different structural models to illustrate the determinants of sense of well-being, namely, the affect-cognition model, and the parent-youth relation model. Making use of the method of maximum likelihood estimation to test the models, none of the original structural models can satisfactorily reproduce the observed covariances among the empirical indicators. However, some trial modifications of the original models yield some fit models for our data. Detailed discussion on the analysis results follows.

1. Affect-Cognition Model

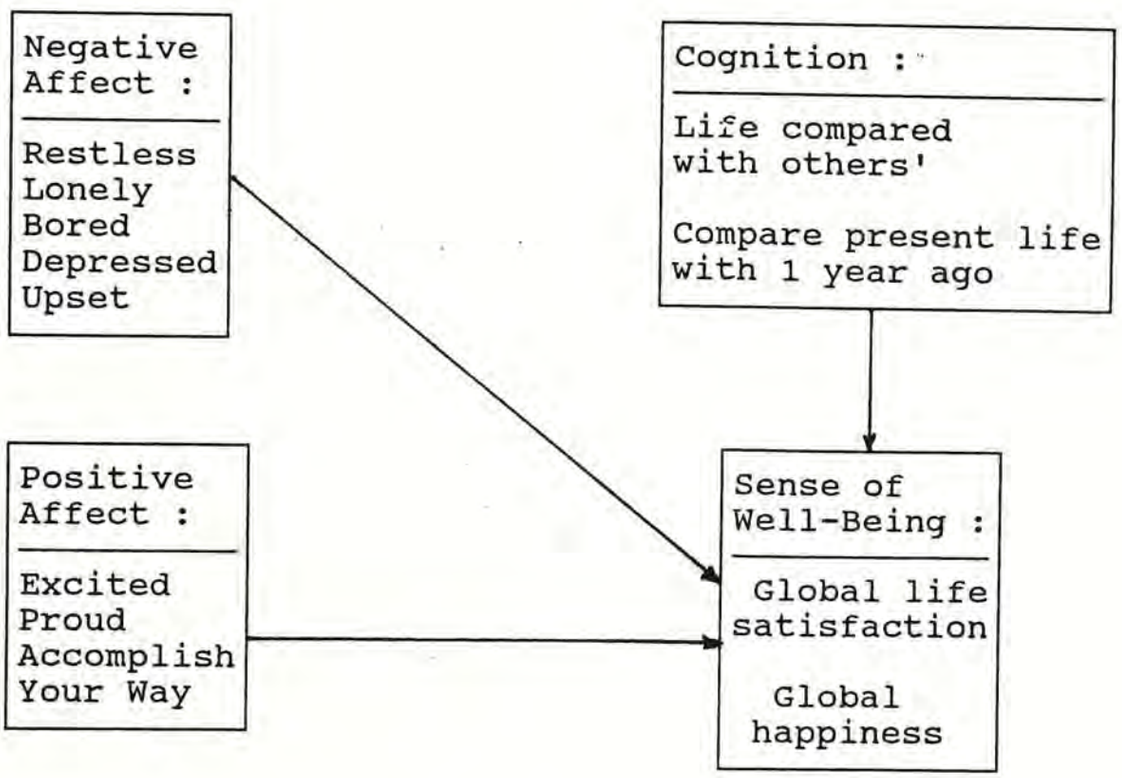
One of the commonly tested causal models concerning sense of well-being involves affective and cognitive components as the determining factors. This type of model assumes that assessment of overall well-being is

influenced by three underlying theoretical constructs: the negative affect, the positive affect, and the cognitive evaluation. To measure the affective components, Bradburn's affect scales (Bradburn, 1969) are used. Referring to the cognitive component, previous studies have treated it as a residualizing concept that no indicator is available. But in this study, we attempt to use two indicators to measure cognition. These indicators include comparison with others' life and with one's life a year ago. The affect-cognition is presented in Figure 7.1. The hypotheses following this model are stated as follows:

(H9) Sense of well-being is influenced by the positive affect, negative affect, and cognitive comparison with others' life and with one's life a year ago.

(H10) There is no relationship among the latent constructs of affects and cognition.

**Figure 7.1. Affect-Cognition Model**



The observed data fit poorly to the original model shown in Figure 7.1. The chi-square obtained for this is 295.14 with 62 degrees of freedom. According to Jöreskog and Sörbom (1989:26), one should regard the chi-square as a "goodness of fit (or badness-of-fit) measure" in the sense that large values imply bad-fit and small values imply good-fit. The degrees of freedom is used to judge the size of chi-square value. In our model, the chi-square value is very large relative to the degrees of freedom. Hence, the observed data do not fit our proposed model.

The result of model testing by LISREL fails to support Hypotheses 9 and 10. It is contradictory to previous research work. One possible reason may be concerned with measurement problem. In our sample, respondents have answered whether or not they have experienced each of the affect items in the recent six months. It means that the affect items are measured only in dichotomous terms. Consequently, the latent constructs of positive and negative affects have only dummy variables as their empirical indicators. This may result in poor measures for the latent constructs. In LISREL, there is an estimation for how well the observed variables measure the constructs. This estimation is called "squared multiple correlation" of the variable in LISREL's term. In our model, indicators of positive affect have squared multiple correlation as low as ranging from 0.08 to 0.25. With regard to cognition, the other exogenous concept, its two indicators attain the squared multiple correlation with a magnitude below 0.1. Such low magnitude of squared multiple correlation reflects low reliability of the indicators to the latent concepts. Low reliability of indicators implies measurement problems of the latent concepts, which in turn lead to the failure of the affect-cognition model. Hence, it may be necessary to investigate how frequent that the respondents have experienced the affect items in order to obtain substantial variation among them.

Another reason that may account for the bad-fit is concerned with the conceptualization of the cognitive construct. In earlier research (see, e.g. Andrews and McKennell, 1980; McKennell, 1978), cognition is treated as a residualized factor, and no explicit empirical indicator is available for measuring this construct. We have tried to measure cognition by two indicators, namely comparison with others' life and with life one year ago, but the squared multiple correlation for both are below 0.1 in magnitude.

The measurement models for the three exogenous latent constructs are far from adequate. Consequently, we cannot expect that the observed data will fit the overall structural model. Since the indicators available are inadequate measures, no modification of the original model is possible.

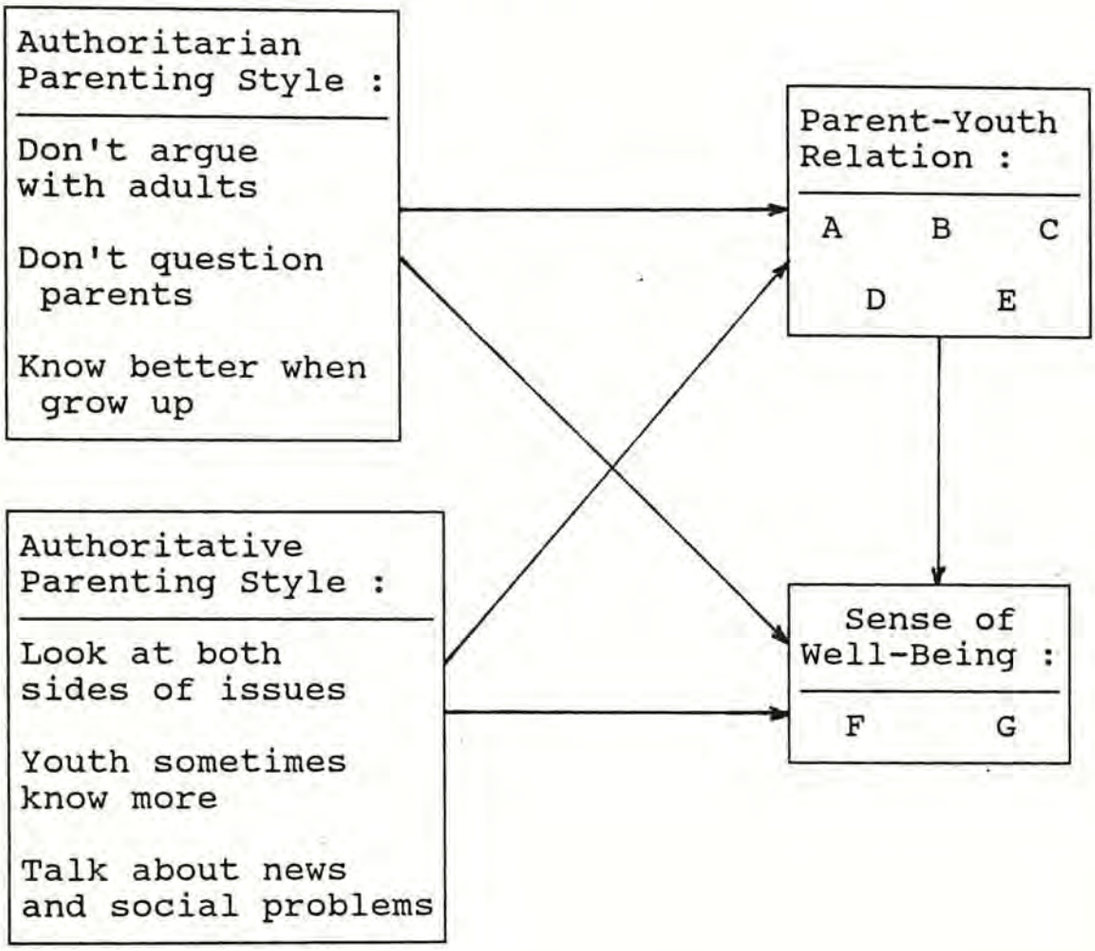
2. Parent-Youth Relation Model

Apart from the influence of affect and cognition, we suspect that parent-child relationship can be another source that exerts impact on the global ratings of well-being. This is based simply on the fact that all of our respondents have children attending secondary schools and whom are at the age of adolescent. Parents can no longer exert total control on their children when they proceed from childhood to the period of adolescence. This leads to a reformulation of the parent-youth relationship. The "unilateral authority" held by parents has to give way to the more cooperative relationships between parents and their adolescent offspring. Such relational change is thought to have impact on the sense of parental well-being. Different types of parenting styles have different effects on adaptation to the change in parent-youth relationship. We have identified two types of parenting styles, namely authoritarian and authoritative. The parent-youth relation model is illustrated in Figure 7.2. To test the

applicability of the parent-youth model to the reality, we hypothesize that:

(H11) Two parenting styles simultaneously influence parent-youth relation as well as perception of well-being, and parent-youth relation also has causal effect on perception of well-being.

**Figure 7.2. Parent-Youth Relation Model**




A: Satisfaction with relation to child
B: Conflict views with child
C: Talked to child last week
D: Understand child
E: Perceived understanding by child
F: Global Life Satisfaction
G: Global happiness

The original model shown in Figure 7.2 has a chi-square value 207.19 with 59 degrees of freedom. Such a large chi-square value relative

to degree of freedom implies that the observed data fits the model poorly. As a result, Hypothesis 11 is rejected. Unlike the affect-cognition model, this parent-youth relation model is not so poor that LISREL can compute several pieces of useful information which give hints for the existing model to be modified.

First, LISREL has produced a "Q-Plot" of standardized residuals. In LISREL's term, residuals are differences between the observed covariances and those resulting form the model's parameter estimates. If a model fits well, the differences will be small. Standardized residuals are the residuals divided by their standard errors. The Q-Plot shown in Figure 7.3 provides a means to judge whether the observed data fit the model or not.

Jöreskog and Sörborm (1989) explain that in the Q-plot, "the standardized residuals are ordered by size and their percentage points in the sample distribution are calculated. Then the residuals are plotted against the normal deviates corresponding to these percentage points, called normal quantiles"(p.28). To assess whether the data fit the model well, the plotted points formed by the "x" and "*" in the Q-plot provide the reference. An "x" represents a single case, an "*" represents multiple cases. If the data fit the model poorly, the plot will be shallower than the diagonal line formed by the dots in the Q-plot. If the standardized residuals are very small, which indicate a well-fit model, the plotted points will be steeper than the diagonal line. If the plotted points do not show a linear pattern, then it is a signal of specification errors in the model or the data depart from the assumption of linearity or normality (p.111).

Examining the plotted points in Figure 7.3, they roughly show a linear form. Therefore, we can confirm that our data fulfill the prerequisite of linearity and normality for applying LISREL modeling to our data.

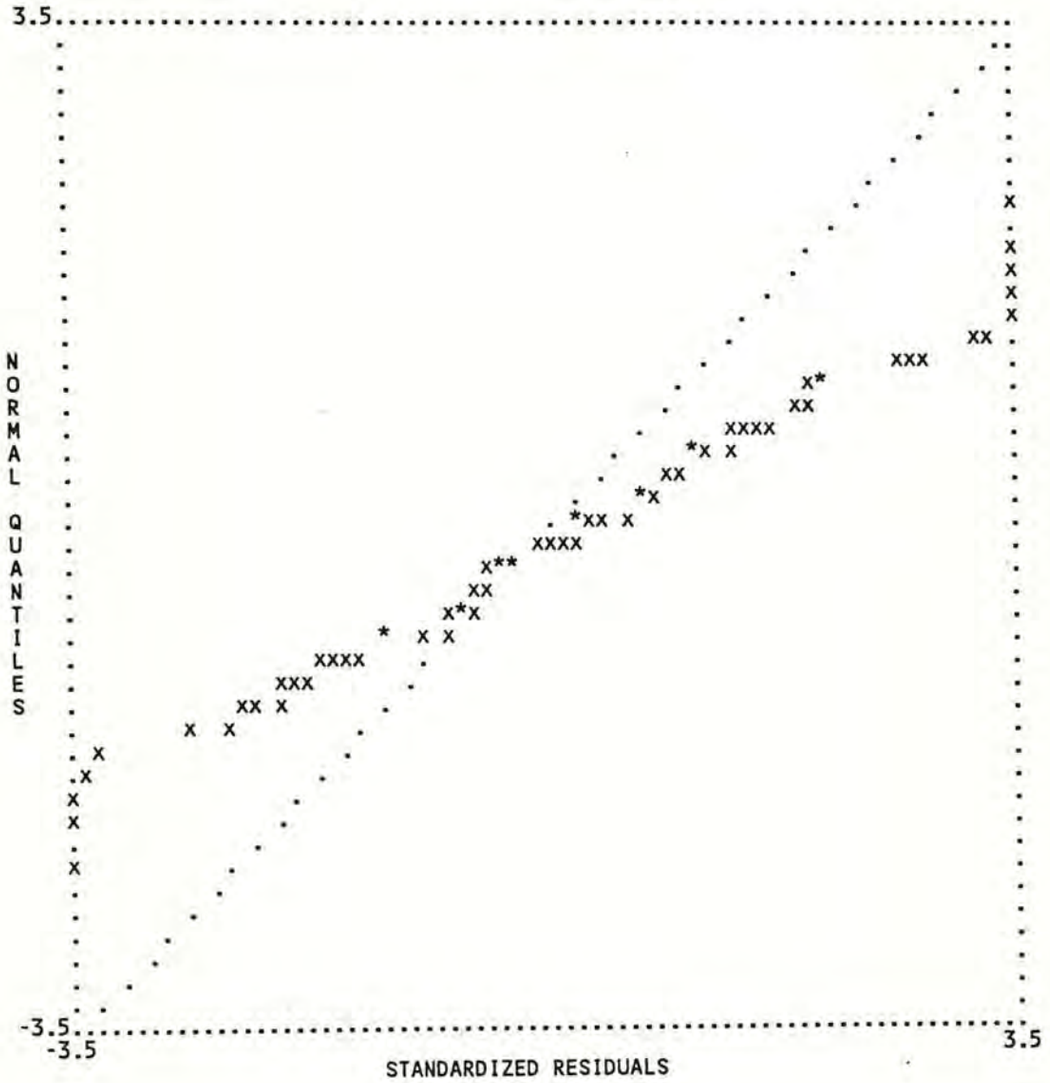
However, the plotted line is flatter than the diagonal line in the Q-plot. This indicates that our data fit the parent-youth relation model poorly.

Secondly, the t-value of each parameter estimate indicates which linkage should be fixed at zero (i.e. to be deleted). Jöreskog and Sörbom (1989) suggest that if a t-value is between -1.96 and +1.96, the associated parameter is not significantly different from zero, and hence such parameter can be eliminated without making worse the fit of the model. In our model, the causal linkages from the "authoritarian style" to both constructs of the "parent-youth relation" and the "perceived well-being" can be removed because their t-values are smaller than 1.96 in absolute magnitude. All other parameter estimates are significantly different from zero, and therefore are retained.

Having found that the authoritarian parenting style has no direct effect on both dependent constructs, we attempt to test another model using the authoritative parenting style as the only exogenous construct. The measurement models concerning the endogenous variables remain unchanged. The LISREL findings still show that this model is poorly fit. The chi-square value is 119.7 with 32 degrees of freedom. The Q-Plot of this model is flatter than the diagonal line. By examining the t-value, no hint is given. Looking at the "modification index", the numbers only suggest that one path should be set free in order to have a decrease of about 25 in chi-square value. Such modification will not yield a model that fits well, although a decrease in chi-square value of 25 is large enough to be given attention.

As the information given does not lead us to a better fit model, we have to reconsider the specification of relationships between the constructs and the observable variables. In our original model, the most bulky

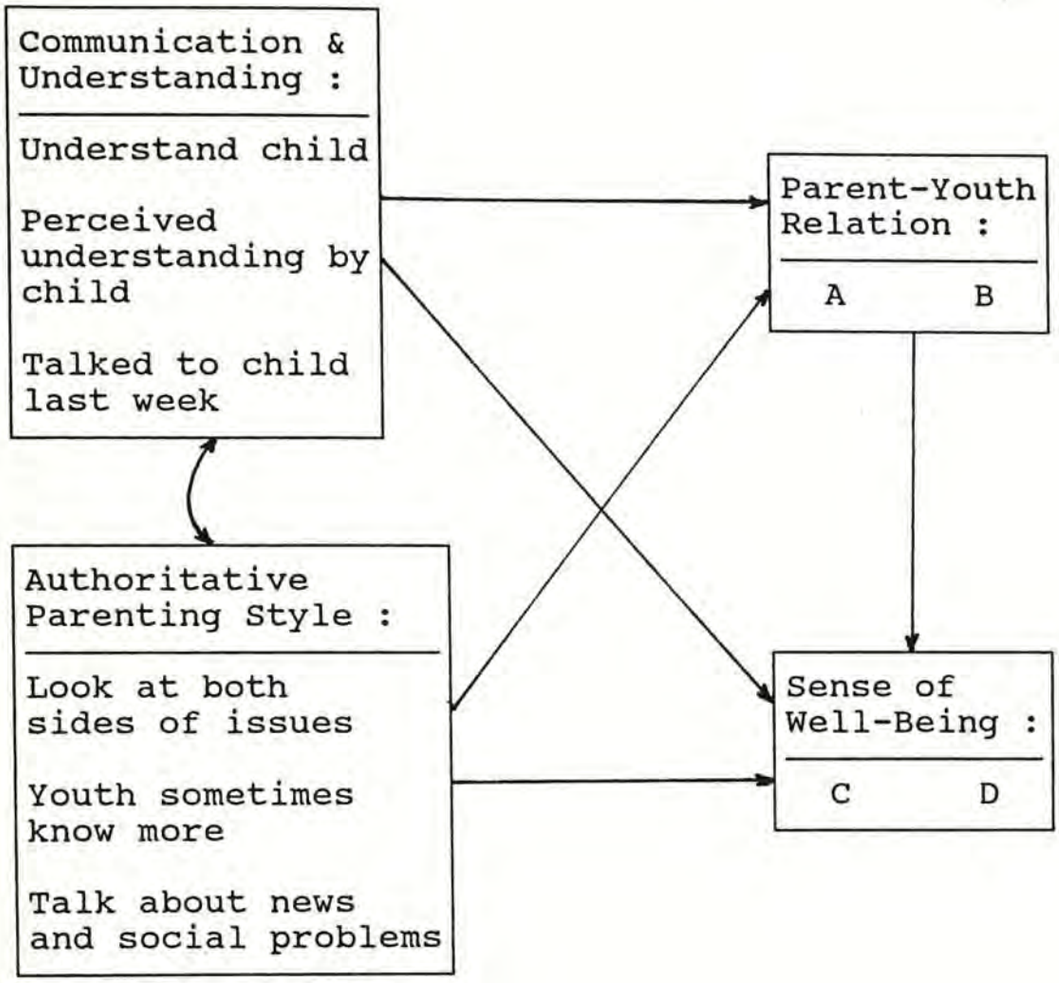
**Figure 7.3. Q-Plot of the Parent-Youth Relation Model**



measurement model is the one concerning parent-youth relation with five observable indicators. To examine the indicators in detail, three of them refer to communication and understanding between parent and youth. We think that degree of communication and mutual understanding can be indicators of parent-youth relation, but they can also be the ways to promote parent-youth relation. Our original model has adopted the former view point, but resulting in a poor fit model. Hence, we propose a revised model that communication and understanding together become one of the exogenous constructs. The newly revised model is presented in Figure 7.4.

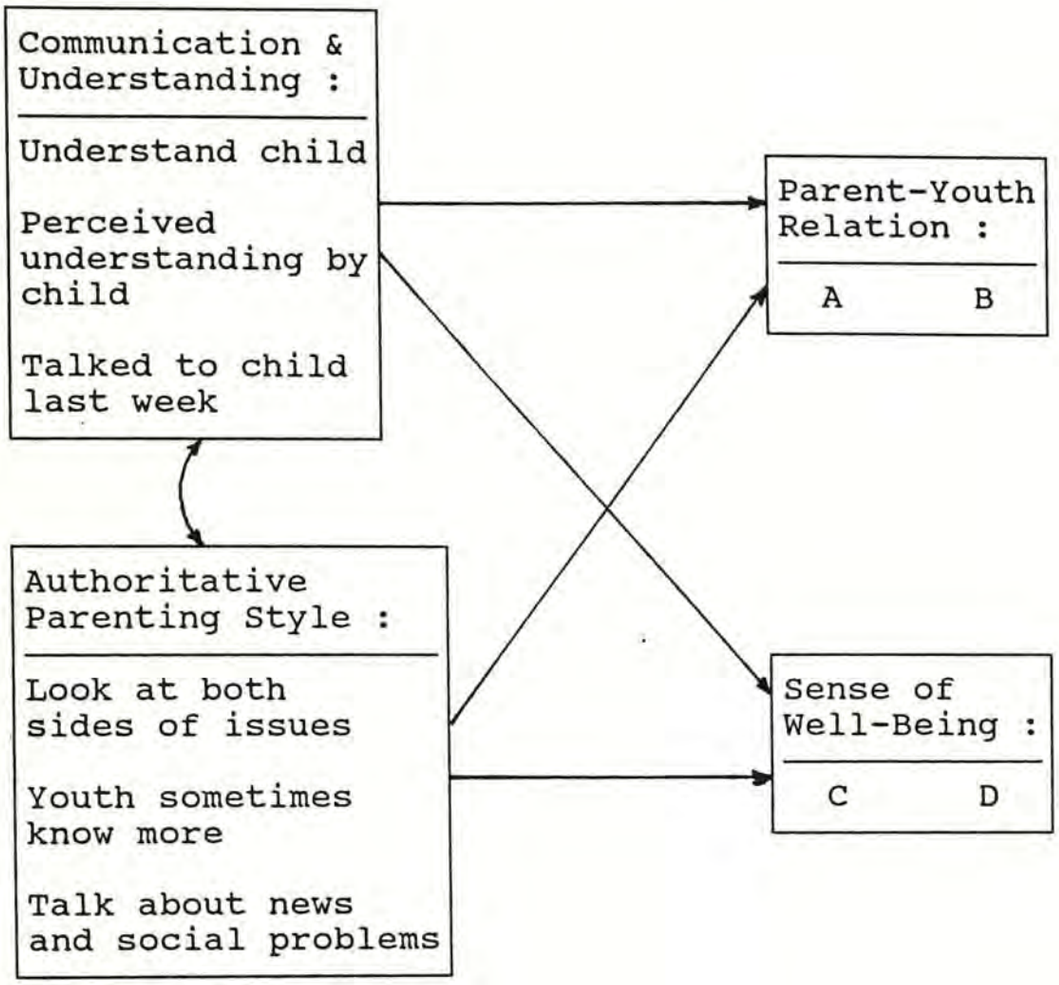
After a series of modifications which are too subtle to report here, our final model is depicted in Figure 7.5. This finalized model shows a little difference from the revised model. The impact of the parent-youth relation construct on the sense of well-being fails to exist. The chi-square value for this model is 43.85 with 28 degrees of freedom, which suggests that the model is still not very well fit to the observed data. Nevertheless, it represents the best among the models we have discussed so far. The Q-Plot for this model shows a line that is slightly flatter than the diagonal reference line, which indicates that our final model is not adequately fit to our data in hand. The Q-Plot is shown in Figure 7.6.

**Figure 7.4. A Modified Parent-Youth Relation Model**



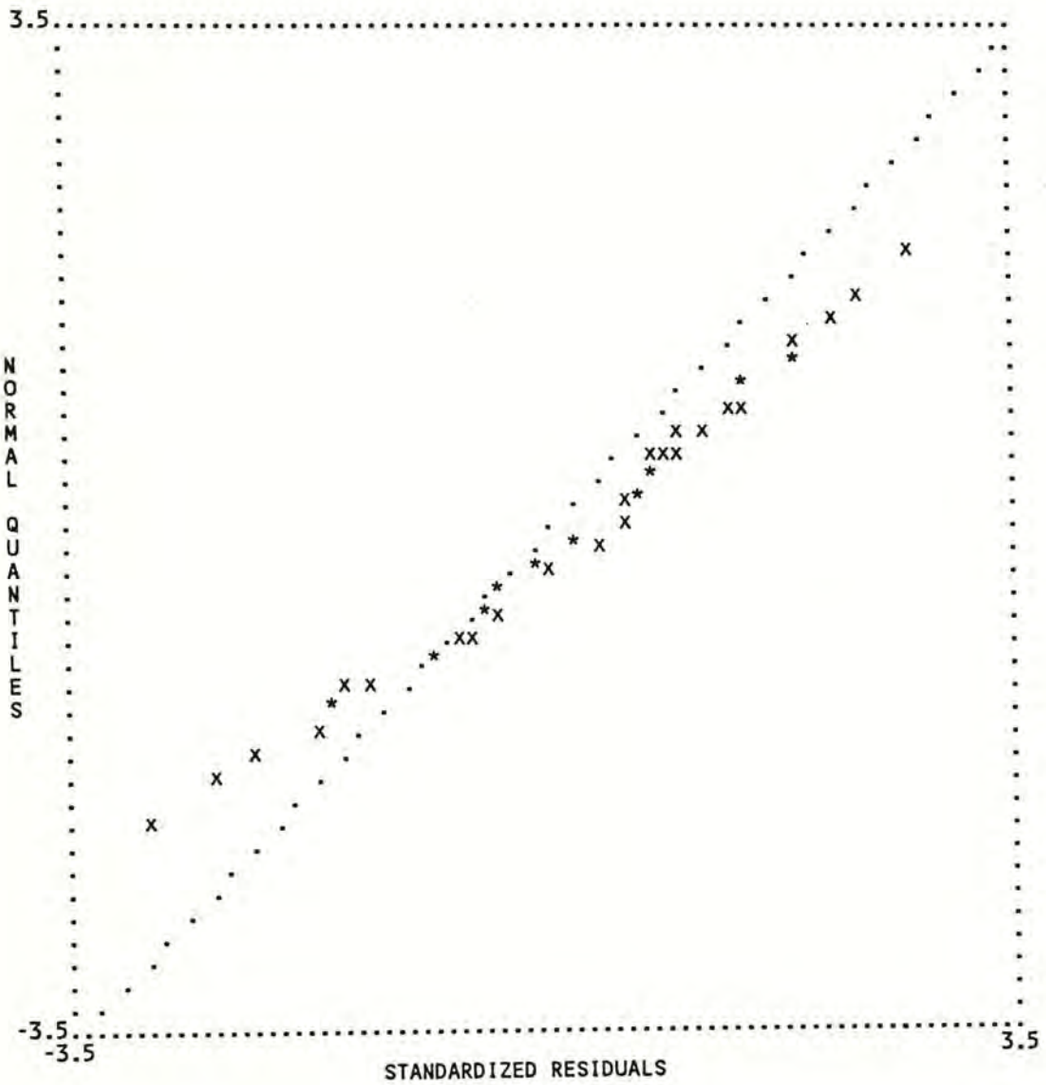

A: Conflict views with child
B: Satisfaction with relation to child
C: Global life satisfaction
D: Global happiness

**Figure 7.5. The Finalized Parent-Youth Relation Model**




A: Conflict views with child
B: Satisfaction with relation to child
C: Global life satisfaction
D: Global happiness

**Figure 7.6. Q-Plot of the Finalized Parent-Youth Relation Model**



We finally stop trying to find a better fit model with two main considerations. First, as we proceed from the original model in Figure 7.2 to our final model in Figure 7.5, the modifications are not well guided by sound theoretical framework. Our statistical searching simply intends to explore the possible dynamics involved in modeling parental well-being. Second, our final model identifies a new set of possible determinants in perception of well-being. However, this set of determinants are rather restrictive in nature, for all of them are concerned with parent-child interactions. Is this causal structure the result of sampling bias? Representative of all adults carrying the same characteristics as in this sample? The product of specific culture? All questions here point to the same need of a sound and valid theoretical framework. Hence, the empirical search should stop here.

Summary

Following the previous studies making use of structural modeling, we have proposed two different structural models to explore the determining factors of parental perceptions of well-being. The models are known as affect-cognition, and parent-youth relation. The names of the models tell us that there may be different sources of influence to perceptions of well-being.

Unfortunately, the two originally proposed structural models fail to closely reproduce the observed data using the method of maximum likelihood estimation. For the affect-cognition model, the LISREL results suggest that the poorly fit model may be due to the inadequacy of the empirical indicators as measures of the independent latent concepts. The "square multiple correlation" produced by LISREL can be seen as the reliability of indicators measuring the latent concepts. In our model, the

indicators of positive affect have squared multiple correlation as low as ranging from 0.08 to 0.25. With regard to cognition, the other exogenous concept, its two indicators attain the squared multiple correlation with a magnitude below 0.1. Such low magnitude of squared multiple correlation reflects low reliability of the indicators to the latent concepts. Low reliability of indicators implies measurement problems of the latent concepts, which in turn lead to the failure of the affect-cognition model.

Unlike the affect-cognition model, the parent-youth relation model is not so poorly fit that LISREL can compute several pieces of useful information for modifying the model. Initially, the model proposes that the authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles exert impact on parent-youth relation and perception of well-being, and parent-youth relation also has causal affect on perception of well-being. The LISREL results suggest that the authoritarian parenting style has no direct affect on both dependent latent concepts. On the other hand, the poorly fit model leads us to reconsider the specification of relationships between the latent concepts and the observable variables.

Finally, we come to a model that involves two exogenous latent constructs and two endogenous latent constructs. The two endogenous constructs remain unchanged as parent-youth relation and perception of well-being. Referring to the two exogenous concepts, one is the original authoritative parenting style, and the other one is concerned with the communication and understanding between parents and children. The observed data does not fit this modified model very well, but this is the best attempt among the several models we have explored and is approaching to a good fit model. At least, it gives hints for understanding the dynamics involved in the perception of well-being.

## Notes

1. The seven response categories in Andrews and Withey's scale (1976:18) include: delighted, pleased, mostly satisfied, mixed (about equally satisfied and dissatisfied), mostly dissatisfied, unhappy, and terrible.

   The 4-point scale used by Davis and Fine-Davis (1991:290, 298) involves: very satisfied, fairly satisfied, fairly dissatisfied, and very dissatisfied.

# VIII. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This study is concerned with the subjective evaluation of life by parents having school-age children. In particular, there are two levels of measures used to tap the parental well-being, one refers to life in general, and the other one involves specific domains of life. The former may be called the global evaluation which is indicated by ratings of satisfaction with, and happiness about life in general. For the latter type of measure, there are 22 specific domains of life included in our study for respondents to evaluate. These two levels of measures together illustrate how the parents perceive about their life. In addition to describing the parental perceptions of well-being, this study intends to identify the determinants of parental evaluation of general life. Three types of analyses, namely, bivariate, multivariate and structural modeling, are conducted in order to search for the determining factors.

## Profile of Respondents

The whole sample together gives us a picture of lower class middle-aged people. A majority of our respondents are between 40 and 54 years of age, having completed primary education or below, having family monthly income under $6000 (in 1985 price), and living in public housing estates. Slightly less than half of the working respondents have occupations of low rank as production and related labourers. Specifically, females are relatively younger and less educated than males, and over two-thirds of them are house-wives. On the contrary, more than 85 per cent of males have a full time job.

Evaluation of Global Measures

Although our respondents are in the social position of less privileged, they nonetheless evaluate positively towards their life. Concerning the two global measures, the majority of our respondents bend to the positive end of ratings. Hence, the respondents may be regarded as satisfied and happy parents. And in the average, fathers and mothers do not show significant difference in their degrees of global life satisfaction and happiness.

In addition, measure of global happiness provokes less sensitive response than satisfaction. About a quarter of our respondents cannot give explicit feeling to either ends, compared with only about 15 per cent for global satisfaction measure. Negative feelings of satisfaction and happiness need not always go in the same direction. The findings suggest that dissatisfaction does not always lead to unhappy life, and the reverse is also true that unhappy life does not always have dissatisfaction as companion. On the contrary, positive ratings on satisfaction and happiness are usually in pairs. These two pieces of information give evidence that satisfaction and happiness are not measures of the same kind, and the inclusion of both measures in this study is then proved to be necessary. Put it more specific, the positive dimension of both measures can be used interchangeably. However, feeling either dissatisfied or unhappy is not always the synonym for one another.

Evaluation of Life Domains

Our respondents are in general happy and satisfied with their overall life. With regard to the 22 specific domains of life, they tend to evaluate them more or less the same as the global measures. 17 domains are rated on a 5-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale, with 1 being very dissatisfied and 5 being very satisfied. The remaining 5 domains are rated according to a

good-bad continuum. Four of which are concerned with relations to parents, siblings, friends, and neighbours, and a 5-point scale (1 being very bad, 5 being very good) is adopted. The last domain refers to the self-assessed health, with simply a 3-point bad-fair-good scale to rate.

Except the self-assessed health, the mean evaluation scores are 3.0 or above in a five-point scale, which imply that our respondents in general perceive positively towards their specific experiences of life. Among the 12 highest scoring domains which receive a mean score of 3.8 or above, 8 of them involve aspects of family and human relations. These 8 domains can be further classified into three levels in terms of degree of personal intimacy. The most intimate level consists of satisfaction with family life, satisfaction with relation to children, and to spouse. The second level refers to less immediate kinship involving evaluation of relation to siblings, and to parents. The third level which is the least intimate involves perceived relation to neighbours, to friends, and satisfaction with interaction with other people.

The remaining 4 highest scoring domains fall into the mass media, with the exception of satisfaction with living district. The mass media includes television, newspaper and radio. Put it simply, the highest satisfaction of the respondents are found in domains which are either personal-relational or informational (i.e. the mass media) in nature.

At the other extreme, our respondents express lowest satisfaction with domains including personal income and current achievement, which in some sense are also personal in nature. The mean satisfaction score for current achievement is 3.1, and for personal income is just 3.0. These scores simply indicate that our respondents are not explicitly satisfied with the two domains, but they do not reach the extent of dissatisfaction.

With regard to the environment, our respondents are least satisfied with the most immediate living space (i.e. the living quarter), but are most

satisfied with the least immediate living space (i.e. the living district). This can be explained by the fact that our respondents are mostly dissatisfied with sound insulation and area of their living quarters. There are 40.5 per cent of respondents expressing dissatisfaction with sound insulation, and 37.1 per cent with area. Recalling that a majority of our respondents are living in public housing estates. In such living quarters, permanent partitioning is impossible, and the space available to the occupants is far from sufficient. Hence, it is not surprising that our respondents are least satisfied with the most immediate living quarters among the evaluation of different aspects of living environment.

What the findings suggest is that the most extreme evaluation of domains of life are concerned with those highly personal, relational and informational in nature. Nevertheless, all domains have received evaluation that bends to the positive ends of the rating scales. At least, a majority of respondents explicitly feel positive experience in most domains. Hence, our claim that the parents are generally satisfied and happy is further supported by the average positive evaluation towards specific domains of life. In addition, general satisfaction and happiness may be derived from experiences in domains that are highly personal, relational and informational in nature. But further evidence for this points to the need of more complicated analyses.

Correlations Between Global and Domain Measures

As a step further, analysis of bivariate relationships between global and domain specific measures produces information about how domain measures are related differently to the two global measures. This piece of information is necessary because satisfaction and happiness are not measures of the same thing, as explained previously. The findings indicate that only 7 out of 22 domains have stronger correlation with global

happiness than with satisfaction. The outcome is not totally out of our expectation because among the 22 domains being evaluated, 17 of them require the respondents to rate their feelings on a 5-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale, and which is the same for the evaluation of global life satisfaction. Therefore, part of the correlation between global and domain satisfaction is contributed by such a common method effect.[1] This argument is also supported by the fact that among the 7 domains recording stronger correlation with global happiness, four of them are not evaluated on the dissatisfied-satisfied scale, but are assessed according to the bad-good continuum. These four domains are personal and relational in nature including self-assessed health, relations to parents, siblings and neighbours. Although it is far from concluding that relational domains are the sources of happiness about life in general, the findings at least suggest a possible way to look for the determinants of happiness. And in order to achieve this aim, we must take into careful consideration the rating scale on which the evaluation of relational domains are based. Perhaps it is fruitful to have direct inquiry on degree of happiness that our respondents derive from different domains of life.

The general picture of bivariate relationships shows rather weak positive correlations between global and domain specific measures. For global satisfaction, only five domains have a product-moment correlation of 0.3 or more in magnitude. These five domains are all concerned with satisfaction measure and include, in descending order of strength of association, family life, current achievement, entertainment, income, and job. Unlike the hints given by the univariate analysis, these five domains are neither relational nor informational in nature, but they are still highly personal and immediate. The similar patterns are also found in male and female subgroups. For men, only the same 5 domains reach the strength of correlation over 0.3, and entertainment and income interchange their order.

For women, income fails to continue to maintain a magnitude of correlation with global satisfaction of 0.3, and two more domains, relation to spouse and interaction with other people, join the list. The order of strength for women is: family life, entertainment, current achievement, job, relation to spouse, and interaction with other people. While the pattern for male subgroup is identical to the pattern for the whole sample, the women in our sample behave somewhat differently. We can say that the major sources of global life satisfaction, for the whole sample as well as for men, stem from life domains that are personal and immediate in nature. For women, however, the major sources are concerned with not only personal, but also relational life domains.

On the other hand, the pattern of relationships for the whole sample between global happiness and domains of life resembles that between global satisfaction and domains. The same five domains have strength of correlation of 0.3 or more in magnitude with global happiness. They also preserve the same order of strength as in the case of global satisfaction. When the sample is decomposed into subgroups of men and women, slightly different results are found. For men, only family life, income and current achievement continue to have correlation with global happiness of 0.3 or more in magnitude. For women, family life, entertainment, current achievement, job, and relation to spouse attain a Pearson's r of 0.3 or more with global happiness. This pattern is more or less the same as that for the whole sample, with the replacement of income by relation to spouse found here.

In the male subgroup, 5 domains have correlations with global satisfaction with a magnitude of 0.3 or more, and only three of these are found in the case of global happiness. The domains of entertainment and job are missing in the case of global happiness. In the female subgroup, 6 domains have correlations with global satisfaction with a magnitude of 0.3

or more, and 5 domains are found in the case of global happiness. Both cases differ only in the domain concerning interaction with other people. Both subgroups reveal that the patterns of relationships between domain measures and global happiness do not reproduce completely what are found in the case of global satisfaction. The slight difference is another evidence that both global measures cannot be used interchangeably. But it is also because of this slight difference that similar interpretations concerning sources of global satisfaction can apply to global happiness. Hence, we can also say that the major sources of happiness about life in general stem from personal and immediate domains of life. And in particular for women, the source domains are not only personal and immediately, but also relational in nature.

Predictors of Global Life Satisfaction

We have identified some domains believed to be potential determinants of global life satisfaction and happiness in a bivariate context. We then proceed to multivariate analysis of data to search for the relative importance of various domains as predictors of the sense of well-being. The statistical technique used for multivariate analysis is stepwise multiple regression. In a strict sense, however, multiple regression as well as bivariate analysis provide information about relationships between variables only. Such relationships certainly do not imply causality. The direction of causal linkage from domains to global measures is not informed by the statistical results, but is embedded in our theoretical framework. Therefore, the interpretation of multiple regression findings as causal relationships between global measures and life domains is a matter of theory, which is well developed by previous research.

To predict the general satisfaction for the whole sample, 16 domains of life are selected as input variables in the stepwise regression analysis. We

have two hypotheses concerning the prediction of global satisfaction for the whole sample. Hypothesis 1 states that global life satisfaction is significantly predicted by satisfaction with the private and immediate life domains such as living unit, family life, entertainment, current achievement, relation to spouse, relation to children, and self-assessed health. Hypothesis 2 states that other life domains that are public or distant to oneself, such as satisfaction with living district, government handling local affairs, interaction with others, and relations to people other than spouse and children, are not significant determinants of global satisfaction.

The results of stepwise multiple regression for the whole sample do not confirm our two hypotheses completely. Out of the 16 input variables, only 7 life domains are significant predictors of satisfaction with life in general. Together they explain 36.3 per cent of variance in life satisfaction. These significant predictors consist of, in order of decreasing predictive effect as illustrated by standardized beta, family life, current achievement, entertainment, interaction with other people, self-assessed health, living quarter, and government. Except the self-assessed health, all the domains are evaluated according to the dissatisfied-satisfied scale. Only five of these domains suit our first hypothesis that family life, current achievement, entertainment, living quarter and self-assessed health are significant predictors. Referring to the second hypothesis, satisfaction with government, and interaction with others are now found to be members of significant determinants. Hence, the second hypothesis that the public and distant life domains cannot significantly predict global satisfaction does not completely hold.

All of the predictors, except satisfaction with the government, are concerned with personal and immediate domains. Although the nature of these domains is similar to the results depicted in bivariate analysis, the substantive elements differ. The common elements in both contexts include

family life, current achievement and entertainment. Hence, these three domains are the key determinants of satisfaction with life in general.

When the subgroup of respondents with full time jobs is selected for analysis, satisfaction with job and income are added to the list of input variables. The regression analysis for this subgroup shows almost the same pattern. Except satisfaction with living quarter, the other 6 significant predictors found in the whole sample remain the same in this subgroup. In addition, satisfaction with income becomes a new significant determinant. Accordingly, working and non-working respondents are not significantly different in factors determining their life satisfaction.

When the working subgroup is further decomposed by sex, there is only slight difference between men and women. Our Hypothesis 3 states that among the significant predictors, satisfaction with job, income, living quarter, current achievement and health are relatively stronger predictors for men. These domains are material or self-oriented in nature. Hypothesis 4 states that satisfaction with family life, relations to spouse, children, neighbours and friends are the stronger predictors of global life satisfaction for women. These domains are family- or relational-oriented in nature.

For men, the result is just a combination of those for the whole sample and the working subgroup, summing up to 8 significant predictors of global life satisfaction. This finding is to be expected since most of the male respondents hold full-time jobs. For women, only 5 domains are found to be significant predictors, and four of them are also found in the whole sample, male subgroup, and working subgroup. These four domains, which may be called the "core" determinants of life satisfaction, are satisfaction with family life, current achievement, entertainment, and interaction with other people. The remaining one significant predictor for women is satisfaction with job. Because of the similarity presented in male and female subgroup, our Hypotheses 3 and 4 fail to be confirmed.

In brief, perception of life satisfaction is influenced by four "core" domains of life which are personal and immediate in nature. In addition, income is one of the sources from which men derive their life satisfaction, while alternatively, women derive their life satisfaction from the job itself, but not from income.

Predictors of Global Happiness

There are two hypotheses dealing with the prediction of global happiness for the whole sample. Hypothesis 5 proposes that the percentage of total variation in global happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction. Hypothesis 6 states that global happiness, like global satisfaction, is significantly predicted by satisfaction with the private and immediate life domains involving family life, entertainment, current achievement, relation to spouse, relation to children, self-assessed health, and living quarter.

The results show that global happiness is predicted significantly by eight domains. These significant predictors include family life, current achievement, entertainment, interaction with other people, self-assessed health, living quarter, government, and television. Except the domain of television, they are the same as in the case of global satisfaction. The eight significant domains explain 30.8 per cent of total variation in global happiness, which is lower than global satisfaction explained by 7 domains (36.3 per cent). This result supports Hypothesis 5. Only five of the significant domains suit our Hypothesis 6. Therefore, the hypothesis cannot be confirmed.

Dealing with the men and women, we have proposed two hypotheses separately for the two subgroups. Hypothesis 7 states that satisfaction with job, income, living quarter, current achievement and health are relatively stronger predictors for men. The percentage of total variation in global

happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction. Hypothesis 8 states that domains concerning family life, relations to spouse, children, neighbours and friends are stronger predictors for women. The percentage of total variation in global happiness explained by the domains is less than that of global satisfaction.

In the male subgroup, seven life domains are found to be significant predictors of global happiness. These predictors include family life , government, income, current achievement, entertainment, self-assessed health, and living quarter. Only income, current achievement, health, and living quarter are present in our original hypothesis. Therefore, the former part of Hypothesis 7 cannot be confirmed. With the exclusion of interaction with other people, the seven significant predictors of global happiness are identical to what are found in predicting global satisfaction for this subgroup. The proportion of variation in happiness explained (35.9 per cent) is lower than that in global satisfaction (42.6 per cent), which supports the latter part of Hypothesis 7.

In the female subgroup, income and television plus three "core" domains (family life, current achievement and entertainment) are the significant predictors of global happiness. Income and television are not found in predicting female satisfaction with life in general. The result does not support the former part of Hypothesis 8. Furthermore, these five domains can explain 34 per cent of variation in global happiness, and the proportion is slightly larger than that in global satisfaction (32.4 per cent). Hence, the latter part of Hypothesis 8 is also rejected.

In short, perception of parental happiness is influenced by more or less the same domains of life as in predicting global satisfaction. In addition to the "core" determining life domains, satisfaction with income is found in both the male and female subgroups as the significant predictor of global happiness.

Structural Modeling

Perceptions of well-being are some kinds of feelings which are subjective and internal to each person. Hence, what we seek to measure are inherently unobservable phenomena. On the other hand, we want to identify some causal structures that may help to explain how people come to the summary evaluation of their sense of well-being. To achieve these aims, it is necessary to make use of the structural modeling technique. LISREL 7 (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1989) is such a technique and it is used to test the practicability of the theoretically proposed causal models to our data. The application of structural modeling requires a prior theoretical specification of causal relationships among latent concepts and observable indicators.

Following previous studies making use of structural modeling, we have proposed two different structural models to explore the dynamics involved in parental perceptions of well-being. The models are known as affect-cognition, and parent-youth relation. The names of the models tell us that there may be different sources of influence to perceptions of well-being, and it is our objective to find out if our data fit any one model well.

Structural modeling itself, like bivariate and multiple regression analysis, is not proof of existence of causal relationships. In essence, structural modeling, as Abbey and Andrews (1986: 95-96) put it, indicates "how strong the causal effect of one phenomenon in another would be if the linkages represented in the model actually occurred in the world ..... Models that cannot closely reproduce the observed data, or that require theoretically or empirically unreasonable parameters to do so, are surely not accurate representations of how the world actually works". This is also our position on using LISREL analysis in this study.

Referring to the affect-cognition model, two hypotheses are made: Hypothesis 9 states that sense of well-being is influenced by the positive

affect, negative affect, and cognitive comparison with others' life and with one's life a year ago; Hypothesis 10 states that there is no relationship among the latent constructs of affects and cognition.

Hypothesis 11 deals with the parent-youth relation model. It proposes that two parenting styles simultaneously influence parent-youth relation as well as perception of well being, and parent-youth relation also has causal effect on perception of well-being.

The results of LISREL analysis reject the three hypotheses for the two models. The two originally proposed structural models fail to closely reproduce the observed data using the method of maximum likelihood estimation.

For the affect-cognition model, the LISREL results suggest that the poorly fit model may be due to the inadequacy of the empirical indicators as measures of the independent latent concepts. The "square multiple correlation" produced by LISREL can be seen as the reliability of indicators measuring the latent concepts. In our model, the indicators of positive affect have squared multiple correlation as low as ranging from 0.08 to 0.25. With regard to cognition, the other exogenous concept, its two indicators attain the squared multiple correlation with a magnitude below 0.1. Such low magnitude of squared multiple correlation reflects low reliability of the indicators to the latent concepts. Hence, we suspect that the measurement problem is one of the reasons that leads to the failure of the affect-cognition model.

Unlike the affect-cognition model, the parent-youth relation model is not so poorly fit. LISREL computes several pieces of useful information for modifying the model. Initially, the model proposes that the authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles exert impact on parent-youth relation and perception of well-being, and parent-youth relation also has causal affect on perception of well-being. The LISREL results suggest that the authoritarian

parenting style has no direct affect on both dependent latent concepts. On the other hand, the poorly fit model leads us to reconsider the specification of relationships between the latent concepts and the observable variables.

Finally, we come to a modified model that involves two exogenous latent constructs and two endogenous latent constructs. The two endogenous constructs remain unchanged as parent-youth relation and perception of well-being. Referring to the two exogenous concepts, one is the original authoritative parenting style, and the other one is concerned with the communication and understanding between parents and children. The observed data does not fit this modified model very well, but this is the best attempt among the several models we have explored and is approaching to a better fit model. At least, it gives hints for understanding the dynamics involved in the perception of well-being.

Implications of the Study

Taking all the results of data analysis together, we can make the following conclusions. For the Chinese parents in our sample, their sense of well-being is influenced by the relationship with their children, by the communication and understanding between parents and children, and by the authoritative parenting style. The latter two constructs also influence the parent-youth relationship. The near-to-success structural modeling of the modified parent-youth relation model supports this argument. It suggests a possibility that the sense of well-being perceived by our Chinese parents may be significantly derived from their children.

On the other hand, the results of multiple regression analysis repeatedly indicate that satisfaction with family life is the strongest predictor of both happiness and satisfaction with life in general. Combining the results of multiple regression and structural modeling together, we can conclude that family is the most determining context in which perception of

parental well-being takes place. This argument is further supported by an additional piece of information.[2] This additional information is concerned with the most frequent type of worry that our respondents have. Among the respondents that report having worry, 25 per cent of them state that they are most frequently worried about their family. Another 14.7 per cent are most frequently worried about their children's academic matters. These two items rank first and second among other worries mentioned by our respondents. What our respondents are most worried about become the determining factors of their perceptions of well-being.

The conclusion that family is the most determining life domain for the parental sense of well-being is not a new description to the Hong Kong Chinese. Lau (1982) uses the concept "utilitarianistic familism" to describe the dominant cultural code in the Chinese society of Hong Kong. Utilitarianistic familism is defined by Lau as the "normative and behavioural tendency of an individual to place his familial interests above the interests of society and of other individual and groups, and to structure his relationships with other individuals and groups in such a manner that the furtherance of his familial interests is the overriding concern"(p.72). Our study dose not deal with the conception of family held by the respondents per se. However, the centrality of family in parental perception of well-being is in line with Lau's idea.

In the beginning, we have hypothesized that some private and immediate life domains are most influential in predicting the sense of well-being. Although the results show that the significant domains differ substantially from our expectation, they consistently point to the prime significance of family life. The scope of family life is actually wide enough to include relations and interactions among members, role-taking of each person, and in Lau's term, the fulfillment of familial interests, etc. Previous research on the sense of well-being has focused on the influence of satisfaction with specific life domains. Our findings draw

attention to the importance of family life and the operations and dynamics involved in it. At least it is applicable to a cross-sectional subpopulation comprising middle-age parents in the Chinese society of Hong Kong. Considering the special characteristics of our sample, we suggest that the importance of satisfaction with role-taking in family, and contribution to familial interests are worthy of investigation in further research on the sense of well-being of Hong Kong Chinese.

The showing of current achievement as the significant determinant of sense of well-being is embedded in previous research findings concerning the characteristics of Hong Kong Chinese. Shively and Shively (1972) conclude from their "Life Quality" survey in Kwun Tong in 1971 that Hong Kong people have been sliding away from their traditional Chinese values. They write that "the interpersonal relationships dominant in traditional society which stress the family connections in the present and through the generations of its history are gradually becoming less paramount. It would seem safe to conclude that [the traditional values] are being replaced by individualism, which their feelings of potency would seem to indicate"(p.39). Lau and Kwan (1988) conclude similarly from their study that "the value of the individual emphasized by the Hong Kong Chinese seems to be an instrumental one, and a person is valued primarily by his achievements" (p.67-68). Accordingly, the significance of satisfaction with personal achievement in predicting global sense of well-being is not only supported by statistical findings, but also has its root in the cultural value of Hong Kong people.

The emphasis on individual achievement seems to contradict the argument of the importance of family orientation discussed in preceding paragraphs. This inconsistency may be interpreted in two different ways. One is in line with the discussions on the process of modernization in Hong Kong by Shively and Shively (1972), Lau (1982), and Lau and Kuan (1988). According to these researchers, the value orientation of people in Hong Kong is changing from

family-centered to individualism. As Lau puts it (1982): "In the future, we can expect the familial ethos to lose influence, particularly among the young generation. We will then see the prevalence of utilitarianistic individualism, the weakening of the familial groups" (p.187). The findings in our study may point to the phenomenon that our society is undergoing a process of modernization, in which the emergence of individualism is the prime indicator.

Nonetheless, family life still exerts greater impact than personal achievement on the sense of well-being in our sample. This may be due to the fact that our respondents are middle-age parents with low educational attainment; therefore, their orientation tends to be more traditional. Or this may be indicative of the incomplete process of modernization taking place in the society of Hong Kong. Of course, it is possible to combine both explanations to account for our findings. However, to achieve the aim of reflecting the process of social change, longitudinal data ae required. Our attempt to account for the patterns shown in our data points to the need of some longitudinal research in order to monitor any change in patterns. Recalling that the valuation of people's well-being arises from the subjective social indicators movement, which has been a response to the needs for information on social conditions. Comparing the difference in the determinants of the sense of well-being in longitudinal surveys can provide additive perspectives to make sense of social change in our society.

Another interpretation for the co-existence of two major sources of influence calls for an "inclusive perspective". The scope of "current achievement" is broad enough to include achievement derived from various aspects of life experience. Therefore, satisfaction with current achievement may partly come from the fulfillment of familial interests, successful role-taking as parents, maintaining harmonious relations with other family member, etc. Adopting such a perspective, both family life and personal achievement existing as significant determinants of well-being do not contradict each other. Of course, we do not have not any empirical data to support this argument yet.

Nevertheless, it points to the need of specifying the sources of personal achievement in order to test the applicability of this inclusive perspective.

We have discussed only the domains of family life and personal current achievement. These two domains are worthy of mentioning since they behave consistently as the two significant determinants of global well-being with the greatest effects. Moreover, their co-existence suggests the potential use of longitudinal research on the sense of well-being for monitoring change in value orientation. Such a monitoring function is originally one of the goals of the subjective social indicators movement.

Methodological Suggestions to Further Research

First, the characteristics of our sample depict a picture of lower class middle-aged parents living with spouse and children. In one sense this sample provides us with information on a group of people at a specific life stage who are relatively not economically well-off. Their evaluation of the sense of well-being is undoubtedly worth of theoretical investigation. In another sense, however, this bounded sample makes it difficult to compare with other studies that are nationally representative of adults aged 18 or over. It also prevents the valuable cross-cultural comparisons. Previous studies have found that people perceived their life satisfaction and happiness differently in terms of age, marital status, life stage, social status, and etc. (see, e.g. Andrews and Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Campbell, 1981; Michalos, 1980, 1982, 1983; Davis and Fine-Davis, 1991). For further research in Hong Kong on perceptions of well-being, we suggest to collect a territory-wide sample representative of adults aged 18 or above who are in different life stages. If such sample is obtained, we shall have an opportunity to identify any cultural specific pattens existing in Hong Kong.

Second, we have discussed that the failure of the well-established

affect-cognition model in this study may result from the inadequate dichotomous measurement for the Bradburn's affect items. To deal with this problem, we suggest that in further research, respondents should be asked how frequently they have experienced the affect items recently, and the answers should be given on a frequency scale ranging from "none" to "almost every day".

Third, some of the domain evaluations (mainly dealing with human relations) are based on a 5-point scale ranging from "very bad" to "very good". They turn out to be the insignificant predictors of global life satisfaction and happiness. They also have lower correlations with the two global measures than the domains that are rated on a 5-point dissatisfied-satisfied scale. To test whether domains concerning human relations other than spousal or parent-child ones are unimportant for perceptions of well-being, we propose that such domains should also be rated on the same dissatisfied-satisfied scale as in other domains.

Finally, our data show that satisfaction and happiness are not synonyms for one another. Multiple regression analysis further discovers that the proportion of variance in global happiness explained by domains satisfaction is usually lower than that obtained in predicting global satisfaction. We propose that in further research, respondents should also be asked to evaluate their happiness about specific life domains. Hence, both satisfaction and happiness measures for specific life domains will be available to predict global satisfaction and happiness. At least with such information we can further investigate the different nature of satisfaction and happiness.

**Note**

1. See Chapter 6, note 3.
2. See Chapter 6, note 4.

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# APPENDIX

The Questionnaire (Chinese version)

# 香港中文大學
# 香港研究中心
# 中學生之閒暇活動與家庭生活研究

（1985）

電腦咭編號：　　咭1

問卷編號：　　2－5

被訪學生姓名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

住址：

（港／九／新）（地區）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　6－7

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

電話：（　）＿＿＿＿＿＿

訪問日期／時間：

第一次 ＿＿月＿＿日（上／下午）＿＿時＿＿分至（上／下午）＿＿時＿＿分

第二次 ＿＿月＿＿日（上／下午）＿＿時＿＿分至（上／下午）＿＿時＿＿分

第三次 ＿＿月＿＿日（上／下午）＿＿時＿＿分至（上／下午）＿＿時＿＿分

樓宇種類：　8－9

01 □ 公共屋邨（包括房屋委員會、房屋協會）
02 □ 居者有其屋
03 □ 臨時房屋區
04 □ 村屋、石屋
05 □ 木屋、鐵皮屋
06 □ 大廈：有電梯之私人多層樓宇
07 □ 大廈：冇電梯之私人多層樓宇
08 □ 花園洋房
09 □ 其他（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿）

被訪家長姓名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

性別：　10　1□ 男　　2□ 女

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

訪問員姓名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

收卷人：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

覆核人：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

咭 1

11–12

1. 你地呢一伙總共有幾多人呢？（包括一齊食飯又同埋住嘅人，連被訪者在內）

_____人

88☐ 不知道

00☐ 無答案

2. 佢地包括啲乜嘢人呢？（追問）重有冇其他人呀？

（可✓多項）

2☐ 配偶

2☐ 子

2☐ 女

2☐ 媳婦

2☐ 婿

2☐ 父母

2☐ 配偶嘅父母

2☐ 自己或配偶嘅未婚兄弟姊妹

2☐ 自己或配偶嘅已婚兄弟姊妹

2☐ 其他親人（請說明_____）

2☐ 其他人（請說明_____）

8☐ 不知道

0☐ 無答案

13 20
14 21
15 22
16 23
17
18
19

3. （如果被訪者配偶不包括在內，續問） 咁你嘅先生/太太喺邊度呢？

1☐ 去世

2☐ 離婚

3☐ 分居

4☐ 在港其他地方

5☐ 在海外（包括國內）

8☐ 不知道

0☐ 無答案

9☐ 不適用：配偶同住

24
25

4. 請你話俾我聽你嘅教育程度。（如配偶並非去世、離婚、分居、續問） 咁你先生/太太呢？

| 先生 | 太太 | |
|---|---|---|
| 1☐ | 1☐ | 無正式教育 |
| 2☐ | 2☐ | 小學程度或小學畢業 |
| 3☐ | 3☐ | 中一／F 1 至中三／F 3 程度或畢業 |
| 4☐ | 4☐ | 中四／F 4 至預科程度或畢業（包括商科） |
| 5☐ | 5☐ | 專上學院或專業訓練（如浸會、理工學院、師範、護士訓練等） |
| 6☐ | 6☐ | 大學教育或大學畢業 |
| 7☐ | 7☐ | 研究院（如碩士、博士） |
| 8☐ | 8☐ | 不知道 |
| 0☐ | 0☐ | 無答案 |
| 9☐ | 9☐ | 不適用：配偶去世、離婚、分居 |

26
27

5．你有冇做全職嘅工作呀？（如配偶並非去世、離婚、分居，續問） 咁你先生／太太呢？ 咭1

| | 先生 | 太太 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | □ | □ | 沒有 |
| 28 | □ | □ | 有 |
| 29 | 888 □ | 888 □ | 不知道 |
| | 000 □ | 000 □ | 無答案 |
| | 999 □ | 999 □ | 不適用：配偶去世、離婚、分居 |

先生　　太太

→ 6. 係邊一行呢？ _____ _____ 30–31

→ 7. 做乜嘢職位呀？ _____ _____ 32–33

8. 你有冇做兼職呀？（包括家庭手工業）

1 □ 沒有 34
2 □ 有
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案

| | 唔滿意 | | 滿意 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 好唔滿意 | 幾唔滿意 | 幾滿意 | 好滿意 | 普通 | 不知道 | 無答案 | 不適用 |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8 | 0 | 9 |
| 9.（祇問有全職／兼職工作） 你滿唔滿意你而家嘅工作？ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ 35 |
| 10.（祇問有全職／兼職工作） 你又滿唔滿意而家嘅收入呢？ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ 36 |

11. 除佐而家住呢一層／呢一個單位之外，仲有冇另外一層／另外嘅單位係自己呢伙人住嘅呢？ 37

1 □ 沒有
2 □ 有
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案

→ 12. 係 _____ 層／單位／房（連而家嗰層／單位計算在內）

13. 呢度係你地住晒，定係分租一部份呢？ 38

1 □ 住晒（轉問#17）
2 □ 分租
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案

14. 共有 _____ 伙人住呢？

8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：自己住晒

咭 1
39

15. 你地所住嘅部份有幾多地方？

_____ 廳

_____ 房

_____ 床位

8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：自己住晒

40
41
42

16. 自己住嘅部份大約 _____ 平方呎？

8888☐ 不知道
0000☐ 無答案
9999☐ 不適用：自己住晒

43-46

17. （祇問有兩單位或以上／兩層或以上的被訪者） 請問你住緊嗰X個單位／層係：

（讀出）

1☐ 一個單位／層做廳，另外嗰啲淨係做房（轉問卄19）
2☐ 起碼有一個單位／層係有啲地方做廳，有啲做房
3☐ 每個單位／層都冇廳房之分（轉問卄21）
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：只住一單位／層

47

18. 咁你地住緊呢個地方嘅廳房同埋房之間係用乜嘢做間隔呢？
（若是分租，呢個地方則指被訪者所住嘅部份）

（可／多項）

2☐ 梗房
2☐ 木板／屏風
2☐ 以傢俬（如大櫃）分隔
2☐ 拉簾或布簾
2☐ 其他方式（請說明 _____）
2☐ 完全沒有間隔／祇租一房／住床位
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：廳房分開在不同單位／層

48 52
49 53
50
51

→ 19. 咁房同埋房之間係用乜嘢做間隔呢？

（可✓多項）

咭 1 － 2

2 ☐ 梗房 — 54
2 ☐ 木板／屏風 — 55
2 ☐ 以傢俬（如大櫃）分隔 — 56
2 ☐ 拉簾或布簾 — 57
2 ☐ 其他方式（請說明 _____） — 58
2 ☐ 完全沒有間隔 — 59
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：上題非梗房／木板／傢俬間隔

20.（此題不適用於祇有拉簾／布簾間房或完全沒有間隔者） 請問睡房主要係邊啲人用呢？

（可✓多項）

| | 自己／配偶 2 | 子 2 | 女 2 | 自己／配偶之父母 2 | 其他親人（請說明）2 | 其他人（請說明）2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 房 1 | | | | | | |
| 房 2 | | | | | | |
| 房 3 | | | | | | |
| 房 4 | | | | | | |
| 房 5 | | | | | | |
| 房 6 | | | | | | |
| 房 7 | | | | | | |

60－65
66－71
咭 2
2－5
6－11
12－17
18－23
24－29
30－35

8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：沒有房間

21. 整個單位總共有幾多個廳同埋房呢？（不計浴室、廚房、儲物室）

_____ 廳
_____ 房
} （合併計算擁有多層或多個單位之廳房數目）

36
37

8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：沒有廳房之分（包括床位）

22. 實用面積又有幾多平方呎？（連浴室、廚房、露台計算）

38－42

約 _____ 平方呎（合併計算擁有多層或多個單位之面積）

88888 ☐ 不知道
00000 ☐ 無答案

23. 呢個單位原來嘅設計係有冇露台或者騎樓呢？ 咭 2

1 ☐ 沒有
2 ☐ 有（公屋設計有煮食地方的亦算有） 43
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案

→ 24. 有冇改裝過呢？（指間房、拆牆、間牆等）

1 ☐ 沒有 44
2 ☐ 有
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：沒有露台

→ 25. 改佐嚟點用？

1 ☐ 廳（或擴充本來嘅廳） 45
2 ☐ 睡房
3 ☐ 其他（請說明 _____ ）
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：沒有露台或沒有改裝

26. 而家呢個單位有冇以下嘅設計或者設備呢？

| （讀出） | 沒有 1 | 有 2 | 不知道 8 | 無答案 0 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (A)摺門 | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 46 |
| (B)「燙」門 | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 47 |
| (C)掛簾或拉簾 | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 48 |
| (D)雙層床（碌架床） | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 49 |
| (E)摺合床（朝拆晚行式，包括常用嘅梳化床） | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 50 |

27. （祇問多層樓宇）而家你地住X樓，會唔會覺得太高或者太低呢？ 51

1 ☐ 太高
2 ☐ 適中
3 ☐ 太低
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：非多層樓宇者

→ 28. 點解呢？（請說明）_____ 52–53

_____

29. 你滿唔滿意你而家住緊嘅呢一個單位？

□ 唔滿意 { 1□ 好唔滿意 / 2□ 幾唔滿意 }
□ 滿意 { 3□ 幾滿意 / 4□ 好滿意 }
5□ 普通
8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

唔 2
54

30. 咁你又滿唔滿意呢個單位裏面嘅：

| （讀出） | 唔滿意 1 | 滿意 2 | 普通 3 | 不知道 8 | 無答案 0 | 不適用 9 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (A)地方大小 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | | 55 |
| (B)廁所、浴室、廚房（不適用：沒有此類設備） | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 56 |
| (C)隔聲設備 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | | 57 |
| (D)空氣流通方面 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | | 58 |
| (E)光線 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | | 59 |
| (F)間隔（不適用：沒有間隔） | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 60 |

31. 你滿唔滿意你住緊呢一座樓？

□ 唔滿意 { 1□ 好唔滿意 / 2□ 幾唔滿意 }
□ 滿意 { 3□ 幾滿意 / 4□ 好滿意 }
5□ 普通
8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

61

32. 你又滿唔滿意你而家住緊呢座樓嘅：

| （讀出） | 唔滿意 1 | 滿意 2 | 普通 3 | 不知道 8 | 無答案 0 | 不適用 9 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (A)管理（不適用：沒有管理） | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 62 |
| (B)維修（不適用：沒有維修） | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 63 |
| (C)照明設備（走廊） | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | | 64 |
| (D)清潔 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | | 65 |
| (E)電梯（不適用：住在低層不用電梯或無電梯） | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 66 |

| | 唔滿意 | | 滿意 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 好唔滿意 | 幾唔滿意 | 幾滿意 | 好滿意 | 普通 | 不知道 | 無答案 | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8 | 0 | 唔2－3 |
| 33. 你滿唔滿意你住緊嘅地區，即係X區 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 67 |

34. 你又覺得滿唔滿意你而家住緊呢區嘅：

（讀出）

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8 | 0 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (A)清潔衛生 | (A)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 68 |
| (B)交通（即係搭唔搭到車） | (B)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 69 |
| (C)娛樂場所（酒樓、餐廳、戲院等）嘅數目 | (C)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 70 |
| (D)公共設施（社區中心、學校、診所等）嘅數目 | (D)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 71 |
| (E)空氣清新程度 | (E)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 72 |
| (F)噪音 | (F)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 唔3 |
| (G)人口密度 | (G)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 2–5 |
| (H)治安 | (H)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 6 |
| (I)環境 | (I)□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 7 |
| | | | | | | | | 8 |

35. 你喺屋企有冇擠迫嘅感覺呢？ 9

1□ 沒有（轉問 ~~#~~ 39） 10
2□ 有
8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

36. 通常喺乜嘢情況下有呢種感覺呢？

（祇／一項）

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 01□ | 做家務 | 07□ | 節日一家團聚的時候 |
| 02□ | 做運動，跳舞等 | 08□ | 子女的同學／朋友來訪時 |
| 03□ | 休息的時候 | 09□ | 其他（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿） |
| 04□ | 每天當家人工餘或課餘回來後 | 88□ | 不知道 |
| 05□ | 邀請朋友／親戚回家玩的時候 | 00□ | 無答案 |
| 06□ | 有親友來訪的時候 | 99□ | 不適用：沒有擠迫的感覺 |

11–12

37. 最主要嘅原因係乜嘢呢？ 咭 3

（祇✓一項）

1 □ 太嘈吵
2 □ 自己可用的空間不夠、活動受到限制
3 □ 不想別人看到自己在做甚麼
4 □ 其他（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿）
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案
9 □ 不適用：沒有擠迫的感覺 13

38. 呢個時候你又會點樣做呢？

（祇✓一項）

1 □ 留在家中做另外啲嘢
2 □ 冇乜特別反應，繼續做頭先做開嘅嘢
3 □ 自己到外面去
4 □ 請家人讓出地方或請家人到外面去
5 □ 大聲吵罵，要別人讓出地方
6 □ 其他（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿）
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案
9 □ 不適用：沒有擠迫的感覺 14

39. 你地喺屋企有冇試過爭地方用呢？

1 □ 沒有（轉問卅46）
2 □ 有
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案 15

40. 通常係爭啲乜嘢地方用呢？

（祇✓一項）

1 □ 廳
2 □ 房
3 □ 露台
4 □ 浴室／厠所
5 □ 其他（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿）
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案
9 □ 不適用：沒有爭地方用 16

41. 主要係邊啲時間呢？

（可✓多項）

| 星期一至五 | 星期六、日、假期 | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2 □ | 2 □ | 上午 | 17–18 |
| 2 □ | 2 □ | 下午（中午十二時起） | 19–20 |
| 2 □ | 2 □ | 晚上（七時起） | 21–22 |
| 8 □ | 8 □ | 不知道 | |
| 0 □ | 0 □ | 無答案 | |
| 9 □ | 9 □ | 不適用：沒有爭地方用 | |

42. 通常係邊個同邊個爭嘅個地方用？（指被訪者在卅40所答的地方）

咭3

| （祇✓一項） 甲 | | （祇✓一項） 乙 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1☐ | 自己 | 1☐ | 23 |
| 2☐ | 配偶 | 2☐ | 24 |
| 3☐ | 子女 | 3☐ | |
| 4☐ | 自己／配偶父母 | 4☐ | |
| 5☐ | 其他親人 | 5☐ | |
| 6☐ | (＿＿＿) 其他人（請說明＿＿＿） | 6☐ | |
| 7☐ | 不一定 | 7☐ | |
| 8☐ | 不知道 | 8☐ | |
| 0☐ | 無答案 | 0☐ | |
| 9☐ | 不適用：沒有爭地方用 | 9☐ | |

43. X（即甲）爭嚟做乜嘢？（續問） X（即乙）爭嚟做乜嘢？

| （祇✓一項） 甲 | | （祇✓一項） 乙 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 01☐ | 日常生活（食飯、休息、聊天、看報、用浴室／厠所） | 01☐ | 25–26 27–28 |
| 02☐ | 看電視 | 02☐ | |
| 03☐ | 打麻雀 | 03☐ | |
| 04☐ | 社交（要招待到訪的人） | 04☐ | |
| 05☐ | 家務 | 05☐ | |
| 06☐ | 做功課 | 06☐ | |
| 07☐ | 做運動／跳舞等 | 07☐ | |
| 08☐ | (＿＿＿) 其他（請說明＿＿＿） | 08☐ | |
| 09☐ | 不一定 | 09☐ | |
| 88☐ | 不知道 | 88☐ | |
| 00☐ | 無答案 | 00☐ | |
| 99☐ | 不適用：沒有爭地方用 | 99☐ | |

44. 會點樣解決呢？

（祇✓一項）

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 01☐ | 互不相讓（轉問卅46） | 06☐ | 其他（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿） | 29–30 |
| 02☐ | 一方讓步，另安排時間 | 88☐ | 不知道 | |
| 03☐ | 一方讓步，另安排外間地方 | 00☐ | 無答案 | |
| 04☐ | 另安排室內地方繼續做嘢 | 99☐ | 不適用：沒有爭地方用 | |
| 05☐ | 由長輩決定 | | | |

45. 會點樣決定邊個用嗰個地方先？

（祇／一項）

01☐ 論輩份、長輩有優先權
02☐ 佔用時間短者
03☐ 辦正經事者（如子女做功課）
04☐ 誰有辦法到外面解決便讓出地方
05☐ 可利用單位內其他地方者
06☐ 冇一定準則（「求奇」）
07☐ 其他（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿）
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案
99☐ 不適用：沒有爭地方用

31–32

46. 我會讀出一啲說話，請你講出你係同意抑或唔同意嗰句說話：

| （讀出） | | 不同意 | 同意 | 不能決定 | 不知道 | 無答案 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 8 | 0 | |
| (A) | 呢個世界上，實在有好少人值得我信任 | (A) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 33 |
| (B) | 一個人嘅際遇，主要係由機會嚟支配嘅 | (B) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 34 |
| (C) | 我好難控制發生喺我身上嘅事 | (C) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 35 |
| (D) | 做人要「今朝有酒今朝醉」 | (D) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 36 |
| (E) | 我嘅煩惱比人地多 | (E) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 37 |
| (F) | 對我嚟講，日日都係一樣 | (F) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 38 |
| (G) | 對我嚟講，呢個世界實在太複雜，太難明 | (G) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 39 |
| (H) | 呢個世界變化多端，我地好難爲將來打算 | (H) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 40 |
| (I) | 今時今日我覺得好難對任何事保持樂觀 | (I) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 41 |
| (J) | 我對而家嘅政府唔係幾信任 | (J) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 42 |

47. 你平時係唔係每日都睇電視？ 咭 3

□ 唔係
4 □ 係
5 □ 冇定
9 □ 不適用：沒有電視（轉問：卄68） 43

→ 48. 上星期大概睇幾耐？（以小時計）

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 01 □ | ＜1 | 07 □ | ≧6，＜7 |
| 02 □ | ≧1，＜2 | 08 □ | ≧7 |
| 03 □ | ≧2，＜3 | 88 □ | 不知道 |
| 04 □ | ≧3，＜4 | 00 □ | 無答案 |
| 05 □ | ≧4，＜5 | 99 □ | 不適用：卄47答唔係／係／沒有電視 |
| 06 □ | ≧5，＜6 | | |

44-45

→ 49. 你星期一至五每日睇幾耐電視？星期六、日又每日睇幾耐？（以小時計）

| 星期一至五 | 星期六、日 | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 □ | 1 □ | ＜1 |
| 2 □ | 2 □ | ≧1，＜2 |
| 3 □ | 3 □ | ≧2，＜3 |
| 4 □ | 4 □ | ≧3，＜4 |
| 5 □ | 5 □ | ≧4，＜5 |
| 6 □ | 6 □ | ≧5 |
| 8 □ | 8 □ | 不知道 |
| 0 □ | 0 □ | 無答案 |
| 9 □ | 9 □ | 不適用：卄47答唔係／冇定／沒有電視 |

46
47

→ 50. 讀出 1 □ 完全唔睇（轉問：卄55）
□ 間中

→ 51. 平均一個星期有冇起碼睇一次？

2 □ 冇一次
3 □ 起碼有一次

→ 52. 咁喺一個星期裏面你會睇幾耐？（以小時計）

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 01 □ | ＜1 | 07 □ | ≧6，＜7 |
| 02 □ | ≧1，＜2 | 08 □ | ≧7 |
| 03 □ | ≧2，＜3 | 88 □ | 不知道 |
| 04 □ | ≧3，＜4 | 00 □ | 無答案 |
| 05 □ | ≧4，＜5 | 99 □ | 不適用 |
| 06 □ | ≧5，＜6 | | |

48-49

53. 食晚飯嘅時候，你係唔係習慣同時睇電視？ 唔 3

1☐ 唔係
☐ 係 { 2☐ 間中 / 3☐ 經常 } 50
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：家長不看電視／沒有電視

54. 唔喺食晚飯嘅時候，你有冇睇電視？

1☐ 沒有
☐ 有 { 2☐ 同時做吓其他嘢 / 3☐ 淨係睇電視 } 51
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：家長不看電視／沒有電視

55. 你認爲<u>×××</u>睇電視嘅時間算唔算多呢？

1☐ 完全不看電視
☐ 唔多 { 2☐ 好少 / 3☐ 唔係好多 } 52
☐ 多 { 4☐ 幾多 / 5☐ 太多 }
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：沒有電視

56. 你地喺屋企有冇試過爲佐大家想睇唔同台嘅節目而嘈呢？

1☐ 從來冇
2☐ 間中有／好少
3☐ 都幾多 53
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：沒有電視

→ 57. （**此題不適用於#55答完全不看電視**） <u>×××</u>有冇份爭呢？ 54

1☐ 沒有
2☐ 有
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：<u>×××</u>不看電視／沒有試過嘈／沒有電視

咭 3

以下三題不適用於家長（＃50）和×××（＃55）都完全不看電視

| | 沒有 | 有：好少 | 有：有時 | 有：經常 | 不知道 | 無答案 | 不適用 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 0 | 9 | |
| 58. 你有冇同×××傾吓電視節目嘅內容？ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 55 |
| 59. 你有冇同×××講吓電視節目嘅內容合唔合情理？ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 56 |
| 60. 你有冇對×××話邊啲節目會比較啱或者唔啱佢睇？ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 57 |

61.（此題不適用於×××＃55完全不看電視）

你有冇同佢講明幾時可以睇電視，幾時唔可以睇？

1☐ 沒有
2☐ 有
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：×××不看電視／沒有電視

58

62.（此題不適用於×××＃55完全不看電視） 你會唔會理×××喺屋企用佐幾多時間睇電視？

1☐ 完全唔理
☐ 會理 2☐ 係間中理吓佢，叫佢唔好睇咁多
3☐ 經常提醒佢，叫佢唔好睇咁多
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：×××不看電視／沒有電視

59

63.（此題不適用於家長＃50和×××＃55都完全不看電視）

你地喺屋企睇電視嘅時候，通常係唔係全家人或者差唔多全家人一齊睇？

1☐ 唔係
2☐ 係
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案
9☐ 不適用：不看電視／沒有電視

60

64.（此題不適用於家長#50完全不看電視）

請問你最鍾意睇邊一類節目？ 01

02

（以下三題不適用於×××#55完全不看電視） 03

04

65. ×××最鍾意睇邊一類節目？

05

66. 你平時有冇鼓勵×××多睇啲某一類節目？ 06

07

（如有，續問）

係邊一類？ 08

09

67. 你平時有冇叫×××唔好睇咁多某一類節目？ 10

88

（如有，續問） 00

係邊一類？ 99

| （祇✓一項） | 64. 被訪者最鍾意睇 | 65. ×××最鍾意睇 | 66. 被訪者鼓勵×××睇 | 67. 被訪者叫×××唔好睇 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 喜劇、趣劇、綜合性娛樂（如歡樂今宵） | 01 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 文藝劇 | 02 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 體育、運動 | 03 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 新聞、時事評論、紀錄片、教育電視、雜誌式節目、生活知識、語文知識 | 04 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 寫實劇（如香港八五） | 05 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 流行音樂、舞蹈 | 06 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 動作、武打、懸疑、偵探、歷險、科幻 | 07 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 冇所謂 | 08 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 冇鼓勵／冇叫唔好睇 | 09 | | ☐ | ☐ |
| 其他（請說明） | 10 ____ | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 不知道 | 88 | ☐ | | |
| 無答案 | 00 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 不適用：不看電視／沒有電視 | 99 ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

（如不能答類別，則問）

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 節目名稱 | ____ | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 節目時間 | ____ | ____ | ____ | ____ |
| 台別 | ____ | ____ | ____ | ____ |

68. 請問你地屋企有冇訂報紙？

1 ☐ 沒有
2 ☐ 有
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案

→ 69. 幾多份？ ____

8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用

→ 70. 裏面有冇包括英文報紙？

咭3

61－62

63－64

65－66

67－68

69

70

1 ☐ 沒有
☐ 有→幾多份？_____ *
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：沒有訂報紙

咭 3 － 4
71
咭 4

71. 請問你地屋企有冇日日或者差唔多日日買報紙？

2–5
6

1 ☐ 沒有
2 ☐ 有
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案

→ 72. 幾多份？_____

7

8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：沒有日日買報紙

→ 73. 裏面有冇包括英文報紙？

8

1 ☐ 沒有
☐ 有→幾多份？_____ *
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：沒有日日買報紙

74.（如#71答沒有，則問）你地屋企有冇間中買報紙？
（如#71答有，則問）除佐日日買嘅報紙之外，有冇間中買另外一啲報紙？

9

1 ☐ 沒有
2 ☐ 有
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案

→ 75. 裏面有冇包括英文報紙？

10

1 ☐ 沒有
2 ☐ 有
8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案
9 ☐ 不適用：沒有間中買報紙

咭 4

76. 你平時係唔係每日都喺屋企睇報紙？

□ 唔係
4 □ 係
5 □ 冇定

→ 77. 上星期大概睇幾耐？（以分鐘計） 11

1 □ ＜20
2 □ ≧20，＜40
3 □ ≧40，＜60
4 □ ≧60，＜90
5 □ ≧90，＜120
6 □ ≧120
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案
9 □ 不適用：#76答唔係／係 12

→ 78. 你星期一至五每日喺屋企睇幾耐報紙？星期六、日又每日睇幾耐？（以分鐘計）

| 星期一至五 | 星期六、日 | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 □ | 1 □ | ＜10 |
| 2 □ | 2 □ | ≧10，＜20 |
| 3 □ | 3 □ | ≧20，＜30 |
| 4 □ | 4 □ | ≧30，＜60 |
| 5 □ | 5 □ | ≧60 |
| 8 □ | 8 □ | 不知道 |
| 0 □ | 0 □ | 無答案 |
| 9 □ | 9 □ | 不適用：#76答唔係／冇定 |

13
14

→ 79. 讀出 1 □ 完全唔睇（轉問#83）
□ 間中睇

→ 80. 平均一個星期有冇起碼睇一次？

2 □ 冇一次
3 □ 起碼有一次

→ 81. 咁喺一個星期裏面你會睇幾耐？（以分鐘計） 15

1 □ ＜20
2 □ ≧20，＜40
3 □ ≧40，＜60
4 □ ≧60，＜90
5 □ ≧90，＜120
6 □ ≧120
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案
9 □ 不適用：#76答係／冇定

82. 當你睇報紙嘅時候，你最鍾意睇邊一部份？

咭 4

（祇✓一項）

16–17

01 ☐ 國際新聞
02 ☐ 社論
03 ☐ 影視消息
04 ☐ 本港新聞
05 ☐ 體育消息
06 ☐ 漫畫
07 ☐ 流行音樂消息
08 ☐ 小說、散文
09 ☐ 生活常識（健康、飲食、時裝等）
10 ☐ 科技專欄（音響、電腦、汽車等）
11 ☐ 財經消息
12 ☐ 奇趣
13 ☐ 社會性專題
14 ☐ 其他（請詳列名稱 _____，所屬報紙 _____）
88 ☐ 不知道
00 ☐ 無答案
99 ☐ 不適用：完全不看報紙

83. 跟住我會讀一啲嘢俾你聽，請你話俾我聽你對嗰樣嘢滿唔滿意：

| | 唔滿意 | | 滿意 | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 好唔滿意 | 幾唔滿意 | 幾滿意 | 好滿意 | 普通 | 不知道 | 無答案 | 不適用 | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8 | 0 | 9 | |
| (A) 從電視得到嘅嘢（消息或者娛樂）（不適用：不看電視／沒有電視） | (A) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 18 |
| (B) 從收音機得到嘅嘢（消息或者娛樂）（不適用：不聽收音機／沒有收音機） | (B) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 19 |
| (C) 從報紙得到嘅嘢（消息或者娛樂）（不適用：不看報紙） | (C) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 20 |
| (D) 從雜誌得到嘅嘢（消息或者娛樂）（不適用：不看雜誌） | (D) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 21 |
| (E) 你嘅家庭生活 | (E) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | | 22 |
| (F) 你同仔女嘅關係 | (F) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | | 23 |
| (G) （祇問配偶並非去世、離婚、分居）你同你先生／太太嘅關係 | (G) ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 24 |

84. 請問你喺最近呢幾個月（半年）內，有冇：

| （讀出） | 沒有 | 有 | 不知道 | 無答案 | 唔 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 8 | 0 | |
| (A) 覺得無聊 | □ | □ | □ | □ | |
| (B) 覺得唔開心或者冇晒心機 | □ | □ | □ | □ | 25 |
| (C) 覺得樣樣嘢都從心所欲 | □ | □ | □ | □ | 26 |
| (D) 因爲其他人嘅批評而覺得唔自在 | □ | □ | □ | □ | 27 |
| | | | | | 28 |

85. 咁喺過去嗰個禮拜度，×××有冇爲佐一啲嘢激過你？

1□ 完全冇
2□ 有
3□ 唔記得

→ 86. 大概幾多次呢？

1□ 一、兩次
2□ 三、四次
3□ 五、六次或以上
8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案
9□ 不適用：冇激過

29

30

87. 如果×××有乜嘢問題或者困難，佢會唔會同你傾，想你幫吓佢？

□唔會
- 1□ 一定唔會
- 2□ 相信唔會

□會
- 3□ 可能會
- 4□ 一定會

8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

31

88. 你清唔清楚×××喺學校嘅成績大致上係點？

□唔清楚
- 1□ 完全唔清楚
- 2□ 唔係幾清楚

□清楚
- 3□ 知道吓
- 4□ 好清楚

8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

32

89. 每逢學校派成績表嘅時候，你有冇睇過？

1□ 冇睇
2□ 有時睇
3□ 次次都睇
8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

33

90. 平時佢同邊啲人來往，你知唔知道呢？ 咭 4

□唔知道 ┐1 □ 完全唔知道
　　　　└2 □ 唔係幾知道 34
□知道 ┐3 □ 知道吓
　　└4 □ 知道晒
0 □ 無答案
9 □ 不適用：完全唔同人來往

91. ×××出街嗰時，有冇事先通知你呢？

1 □ 沒有
□ 有 ┐2 □ 有時 35
　　└3 □ 次次都有
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案
9 □ 不適用：唔出街

92. 你覺得×××夠唔夠家呢？

□ 唔夠家 ┐1 □ 完全唔夠家
　　　　└2 □ 唔係幾夠家 36
□ 夠家 ┐3 □ 都幾夠家
　　└4 □ 非常夠家
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案

93. 喺過去嗰個禮拜裏面，你同×××傾偈多唔多呢？

□唔多 ┐1 □ 幾乎冇
　　└2 □ 好少 37
□多 ┐3 □ 幾多
　　└4 □ 好多
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案

→94. 多數係邊個開口先？

1 □ 父／母 38
2 □ ×××
3 □ 差唔多一樣
8 □ 不知道
0 □ 無答案
9 □ 不適用：唔多同×××傾偈

→95. 通常傾啲乜嘢多呢？

（祇✓一項）

咭 4

39–40

01 ☐ 家務方面
02 ☐ 學業方面
03 ☐ 學校生活
04 ☐ 做人、交朋友
05 ☐ 社會問題
06 ☐ 國際／世界大事
07 ☐ 體育
08 ☐ 電視內容／藝員
09 ☐ 電影內容／明星
10 ☐ 時裝
11 ☐ 其他（請說明 _____ ）
88 ☐ 不知道
00 ☐ 無答案
99 ☐ 不適用：唔多同×××傾偈

96. 你同×××意見唔相同嘅時候多唔多？

☐ 唔多
- 1 ☐ 沒有
- 2 ☐ 有時

☐ 多
- 3 ☐ 幾多
- 4 ☐ 差唔多日日都有

8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案

41

97. 你覺得你了唔了解×××呢？

☐ 唔了解
- 1 ☐ 完全唔了解
- 2 ☐ 唔係幾了解

☐ 了解
- 3 ☐ 都算幾了解
- 4 ☐ 完全了解

8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案

42

98. 你覺得×××又了唔了解你呢？

☐ 唔了解
- 1 ☐ 完全唔了解
- 2 ☐ 唔係幾了解

☐ 了解
- 3 ☐ 都算幾了解
- 4 ☐ 完全了解

8 ☐ 不知道
0 ☐ 無答案

43

99. （向被訪者出示答案紙A）

我而家問你嘅幾個問題，都可以用呢度所寫嘅答案嚟答，請你聽完我問你嘅問題，就揀一個你認爲最適合嘅答案。

咭 4

| （讀出） | 從來冇 | 偶然一兩次 | 間中 | 經常 | 不知道 | 無答案 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 0 | |
| (A) 你多唔多對×××話：父母嘅意見係啱嘅，而仔女就應該要聽話。 | (A)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 44 |
| (B) 如果×××同你拗頸，你多唔多咁樣對佢講：「你第日大個佐就知」。 | (B)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 45 |
| (C) 你多唔多教×××，凡係同人意見唔啱嘅時候，爲佐唔好激嬲人，最好唔好死拗。 | (C)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 46 |
| (D) 你多唔多教×××，凡事都有啱同埋唔啱兩方面嘅睇法。 | (D)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 47 |
| (E) 你多唔多對×××講佢喺某方面可能比大人重識得多嘢。 | (E)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 48 |
| (F) 你多唔多喺屋企度同×××傾吓時事或者社會問題呢？ | (F)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 49 |

100. 如果×××同一啲朋友傾緊一個問題而佢啲朋友又唔係幾贊成佢嘅睇法，咁你認爲佢應該點做？

1☐ 唔好講咁多 50
2☐ 照樣將佢自己嘅意見講出嚟
3☐ 唔理（追問：請你再稔吓，你覺得佢應該點做？）
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案

101. 如果×××爲佐一個問題同你「拗」，你會唔會叫佢唔好同大人「拗」？

☐ 唔會 { 1☐ 一定唔會 ; 2☐ 相信唔會 } 51
☐ 會 { 3☐ 可能會 ; 4☐ 一定會 }
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案

102. 而家我想再知道你喺呢幾個月（半年）內，有冇：

| （讀出） | 沒有 | 有 | 不知道 | 無答案 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 8 | 0 | |
| (A) 對一啲事感到特別興奮或者發生好大嘅興趣 | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 52 |
| (B) 覺得坐立不安 | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 53 |
| (C) 因爲做佐一啲嘢，得到其他人稱讚而覺得自豪 | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 54 |
| (D) 同其他人疏遠而覺得寂寞 | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 55 |

103. 喺你得閒嘅時候，你會想做啲乜嘢或者想點呢？

我而家讀出一啲喺得閒嘅時候可以做嘅嘢，請你話俾我聽呢啲嘢對你嚟講緊要抑或唔緊要。（出示答案紙B）呢度寫佐4個答案，1代表完全不緊要，2代表不大緊要，3代表緊要，4代表十分緊要。

（如果被訪者認爲「緊要」或者「十分緊要」，則問）　咁你覺得邊一種傳播媒介（電視、報紙、雜誌、電視、電台廣播）係最可以幫你做到呢啲嘢？

咭 4 — 5

| （讀出） | | 完全不緊要 1 | 不大緊要 2 | 緊要 3 | 十分緊要 4 | （祇／一項）電視 1 | 報紙 2 | 雜誌 3 | 電影 4 | 電台廣播 5 | 沒有媒介 6 | 不知道 8 | 無答案 0 | 不適用 9 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 輕鬆 | 01 鬆馳神經 | 01□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 56–57 |
| | 02 消磨吓時間 | 02□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 58–59 |
| 培養興趣 | 03 增加吓知識或者常識 | 03□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 60–61 |
| | 04 培養啲興趣 | 04□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 62–63 |
| 了解啲嘢 | 05 了解吓世界大事 | 05□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 64–65 |
| | 06 了解吓同人相處嘅問題 | 06□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 66–67 |
| 同人一齊 | 07 同家人喺埋一齊 | 07□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 68–69 |
| | 08 同朋友喺埋一齊 | 08□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 70–71 |
| 忘記啲嘢 | 09 忘記佐屋企裏面嘅一啲煩惱 | 09□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 咭 5 2–5 |
| | 10 忘記佐工作上嘅問題 | 10□ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 6–7 |
| （不適用：沒有全職／兼職） | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 8–9 |

104. 而家你再稔吓，喺頭先講過嘅咁多樣你認爲係「緊要」，或者「十分緊要」嘅嘢裏面，（讀出），邊一種對你嚟講可以話係最緊要呢？（續問）咁其次呢？

□□ 最緊要　10–11

□□ 次緊要　12–13

88□ 不知道

00□ 無答案

99□ 不適用：沒有一樣緊要

105. 你覺得你而家嘅空閒時間足唔足夠？ 唔5

- ☐ 唔足夠
  - 1☐ 好唔足夠
  - 2☐ 幾唔足夠
- ☐ 足夠
  - 3☐ 幾足夠
  - 4☐ 好足夠
  - 5☐ 普通
  - 8☐ 不知道
  - 0☐ 無答案

14

106. 你滿唔滿意你而家嘅娛樂？

- ☐ 唔滿意
  - 1☐ 好唔滿意
  - 2☐ 幾唔滿意
- ☐ 滿意
  - 3☐ 幾滿意
  - 4☐ 好滿意
  - 5☐ 普通
  - 8☐ 不知道
  - 0☐ 無答案

15

107. 目前香港有好多問題，以你個人意見，你覺得最嚴重而又應該盡快解決嘅問題係邊一樣呢？

（祇／一項）

16-17

- 01☐ 犯罪、治安及罪惡
- 02☐ 房屋、人口及擠迫
- 03☐ 交通及道路安全
- 04☐ 物價
- 05☐ 教育
- 06☐ 就業及勞工
- 07☐ 青少年
- 08☐ 衛生、清潔、健康及醫療服務
- 09☐ 社會福利
- 10☐ 環境污染
- 11☐ 老人
- 12☐ 貪污
- 13☐ 人工及薪金
- 14☐ 香港前途
- 15☐ 其他（請說明_____）
- 88☐ 不知道
- 00☐ 無答案
- 99☐ 不適用：沒有此類問題

108. 你滿唔滿意而家香港政府所處理嘅嘢（本港一般事務）？

- ☐ 唔滿意
  - 1☐ 好唔滿意
  - 2☐ 幾唔滿意
- ☐ 滿意
  - 3☐ 幾滿意
  - 4☐ 好滿意
  - 5☐ 普通
  - 8☐ 不知道
  - 0☐ 無答案

18

109. 咁你又滿唔滿意市政局同埋區議會所處理嘅嘢（市政及地區事務）？

咭 5

19

- ☐ 唔滿意
  - 1 ☐ 好唔滿意
  - 2 ☐ 幾唔滿意
- ☐ 滿意
  - 3 ☐ 幾滿意
  - 4 ☐ 好滿意
- 5 ☐ 普通
- 8 ☐ 不知道
- 0 ☐ 無答案

110. 大多數人喺某啲時候都會擔心吓，對你嚟講，你會唔會擔心呢？

20

- ☐ 唔會
  - 1 ☐ 成日唔會 （轉問 ~~共~~ 1 1 3 ）
  - 2 ☐ 間中唔會
- ☐ 會
  - 3 ☐ 間中會
  - 4 ☐ 成日會
- 8 ☐ 不知道
- 0 ☐ 無答案

111. 咁你最多時候係擔心啲乜嘢？

（祇✓一項）

21-22

01☐ 房屋
02☐ 家庭
03☐ 健康
04☐ 金錢
05☐ 工作
06☐ 治安
07☐ 個人前途
08☐ 香港前途
09☐ 其他（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿）
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案
99☐ 不適用：成日都唔會擔心

112. 當你遇到呢個問題時，咁你首先會同邊啲人傾呢？

（祇✓一項）

23-24

01☐ 父母
02☐ 配偶
03☐ 仔女
04☐ 兄弟姊妹
05☐ 親戚
06☐ 朋友
07☐ 同事
08☐ 其他人（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿）
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案
99☐ 不適用：成日都唔會擔心

113. 請問你同唔同意下面呢幾句說話？

| （讀出） | 不同意 1 | 同意 2 | 不能決定 3 | 不知道 8 | 無答案 0 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (A) 一般人嘅命運祇有愈來愈差 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 25 |
| (B) 大致嚟講，人類嘅將來似乎好黯淡 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 26 |
| (C) 香港嘅前途睇嚟好唔穩定 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 27 |
| (D) 對我嚟講，自己前途一片光明 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 28 |
| (E) 大致嚟講，呢個世界係愈來愈好 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | 29 |

114. 大致嚟講，你覺得而家嘅生活開唔開心？

- □ 唔開心
  - 1□ 好唔開心
  - 2□ 幾唔開心
- □ 開心
  - 3□ 幾開心
  - 4□ 好開心
- 5□ 普通
- 8□ 不知道
- 0□ 無答案

30

115. 如果同一年前比較，你覺得而家嘅生活係：一年前開心啲、同一年前差唔多，還係而家開心啲呢？

1□ 一年前開心啲
2□ 同一年前差唔多
3□ 而家開心啲
8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

31

116. 你覺得自己嘅健康好唔好？

1□ 唔好
2□ 好
3□ 普通（追問：多數時候係好定唔好？）
8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

32

117. 你呢一排有冇因爲有啲成就（做佐啲嘢）而覺得好開心？

1□ 沒有
2□ 有
3□ 不能決定
8□ 不知道
0□ 無答案

33

118. 同其他人比較，你認爲你嘅生活算唔算好？ 咭 5

1☐ 唔好
2☐ 好 34
3☐ 差不多（追問：多數時候係好定唔好？）
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案

119. 你滿唔滿意你同其他人嘅交往？

☐ 唔滿意 { 1☐ 好唔滿意 / 2☐ 幾唔滿意 } 35
☐ 滿意 { 3☐ 幾滿意 / 4☐ 好滿意 }
5☐ 普通
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案

120. 你覺得你對其他人有冇貢獻？

1☐ 沒有
2☐ 有 36
3☐ 不能決定
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案

121. （請向被訪者出示答案紙C）

呢啲面型係想你用嚟表達你對而家生活嘅感受。例如：「1」嘅面型係表示你覺得而家嘅生活係最好嘅，「5」嘅面型就表示最唔好嘅，而「2」到「4」嘅面型就代表兩者之間。
而家我就開始讀出呢啲生活感受，請你揀出最能代表你嘅感受嘅面型。

| （讀出） |  |  |  |  |  | 不知道 | 無答案 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 你覺得而家嘅生活係： | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8 | 0 | |
| (A) 有趣味還係無聊 | (A)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 37 |
| (B) 令人開心還係令人愁苦 | (B)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 38 |
| (C) 有意思還係冇意思 | (C)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 39 |
| (D) 充滿温情還係孤伶伶 | (D)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 40 |
| (E) 好有希望還係冇晒希望 | (E)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 41 |
| (F) 輕鬆還係艱苦 | (F)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 42 |
| (G) 自由自在還係多束縛 | (G)☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 43 |

122. 一般嚟講，你滿唔滿意而家嘅生活？ 咭 5

- □ 唔滿意
  - 1□ 好唔滿意
  - 2□ 幾唔滿意
- □ 滿意
  - 3□ 幾滿意
  - 4□ 好滿意
- 5□ 普通
- 8□ 不知道
- 0□ 無答案

44

123. 咁你又滿唔滿意自己目前各方面嘅成就？

- □ 唔滿意
  - 1□ 好唔滿意
  - 2□ 幾唔滿意
- □ 滿意
  - 3□ 幾滿意
  - 4□ 好滿意
- 5□ 普通
- 8□ 不知道
- 0□ 無答案

45

124. 跟住我地想知道你同一啲人嘅關係好唔好？

| | 唔好 | | 好 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 十分唔好 | 唔係幾好 | 幾好 | 十分好 | 普通 | 不知道 | 無答案 | 不適用 |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 8 | 0 | 9 |
| (A) 你同你父母嘅關係（不適用：父母倆都去世） | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ |
| (B) 你同兄弟姊妹嘅關係（不適用：沒有兄弟姊妹或已去世） | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ |
| (C) 你同朋友嘅關係 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | |
| (D) 你同隔離鄰舍嘅關係 | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | □ | |

46

47

48

49

（以下三題，請按被訪者所說出的答案，依先後次序，在各項適當的空格內填上1,2,3 三個主要因素）

目前有好多香港人都住喺多層樓宇，假如你(再)有機會入住呢一種樓宇，你會考慮：（以下三題）

125. 屋裏面要點呢？ （填上1,2,3 ）

- 01□ 有足夠空間
- 02□ 有梗房式間隔
- 03□ 光線充足
- 04□ 空氣流通
- 05□ 設備（厠所、浴室、廚房等）完善
- 06□ 隔聲設備好
- 07□ 座向好（例如向南）
- 08□ 其他（請說明_____）
- 88□ 不知道
- 00□ 無答案

50–51

52–53

54–55

126. 嗰一座大廈又要點呢？（填上1,2,3 ）

咭 5

01☐ 左鄰右里不太雜
02☐ 治安好
03☐ 維修完善
04☐ 同一層伙數不宜太多
05☐ 住在高層
06☐ 住在中層
07☐ 住在低層
08☐ 有電梯直達自己住的一層 56–57
09☐ 清潔 58–59
10☐ 清靜 60–61
11☐ 其他（請說明_____）
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案

127. 嗰一區又應該點呢？（填上1,2,3 ）

01☐ 清潔 62–63
02☐ 清靜 64–65
03☐ 交通方便 66–67
04☐ 接近市場／商場
05☐ 有休憩場所（如酒樓、餐廳、戲院等）
06☐ 治安好
07☐ 鄰近有學校
08☐ 鄰近有社會服務機構（如社區中心、青年中心等）
09☐ 其他（請說明_____）
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案

128. 每個人都會有啲時間稔吓自己嘅將來。對你嚟講，你覺得你可唔可以有規則咁計劃自己以後嘅日子呢？

1☐ 不可以 68
2☐ 可以
8☐ 不知道
0☐ 無答案

129. 假如你要爲自己嘅將來作一個計劃，你嘅計劃期限會係幾耐？

01☐ 以後嘅兩個月 69–70
02☐ 以後嘅六個月
03☐ 以後嘅一年
04☐ 以後嘅兩年
05☐ 以後嘅三至四年
06☐ 以後嘅五至九年
07☐ 以後嘅十年
08☐ 以後嘅十年以上
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案
99☐ 不適用：不能計劃將來

130. 假如你地有更好嘅經濟條件（收入增加一倍），你會最先考慮做乜嘢呢？

咭 5 — 6

（祇✓一項）

71-72

01☐ 購買多些家居用品（如電器）
02☐ 旅遊
03☐ 搬往較佳嘅地方住
04☐ 買汽車代步
05☐ 吃好一些
06☐ 穿好一些
07☐ 購買保值的貴重物品（如金飾）
08☐ 投資（做生意、股票、樓宇等）
09☐ 供子女讀書
10☐ 儲蓄
11☐ 其他（請說明：_____）
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案

131. 最後請問你地屋企每個月嘅總收入大約有幾多？

咭 6

2-5

6-7

01☐ HK $ 900或以下
02☐ HK $ 1000—1499
03☐ HK $ 1500—1999
04☐ HK $ 2000—2499
05☐ HK $ 2500—2999
06☐ HK $ 3000—3499
07☐ HK $ 3500—3999
08☐ HK $ 4000—4499
09☐ HK $ 4500—4999
10☐ HK $ 5000—5999
11☐ HK $ 6000—6999
12☐ HK $ 7000—7999
13☐ HK $ 8000—8999
14☐ HK $ 9000—14999
15☐ HK $ 15000—19999
16☐ HK $ 20000或以上
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案

132. 你喺上一次生日時係西曆幾多歲？

8-9

01☐ 29歲或以下
02☐ 30—34歲
03☐ 35—39歲
04☐ 40—44歲
05☐ 45—49歲
06☐ 50—54歲
07☐ 55—59歲
08☐ 60—64歲
09☐ 65歲或以上
88☐ 不知道
00☐ 無答案

——全卷完，多謝合作——

請訪問員將訪問完畢時間記錄於封面上，並盡快填寫背頁之INTERVIEWER' S SUPPLEMENT

## INTERVIEWER'S SUPPLEMENT

咭 6

1. What was the respondent's initial reaction to being interviewed?

   1 Very reluctant
   2 Somewhat reluctant
   3 Indifferent
   4 Somewhat interested
   5 Very interested

   10

2. How was the respondent's co-operation during the interview?

   1 Very poor
   2 Poor
   3 Fair
   4 Good
   5 Excellent

   11

3. Was there any interruption during the interview?

   1 Yes, interview was interrupted but was not resumed
   2 Yes, interview was interrupted but was resumed
   3 No, interview was not interrupted

   12

4. Did the respondent have any difficulty in understanding the questions?

   1 Respondent had no difficulty at all in understanding
   2 Respondent generally had no difficulty, but some questions did prove difficult to understand

   WHICH ONES: _____

   3 Respondent had difficulty in understanding many questions

   13

5. Did the respondent seem sincere in answering the questions?

   1 Seemed to answer almost all questions sincerely
   2 Generally sincere, but a few answers seemed false

   WHICH ONES: _____

   3 Seemed insincere to many questions

   14

6. THUMBNAIL SKETCH: Enter here any comments about special circumstances surrounding the interview or anything else which help us to interpret it better

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